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THE PEOPLE'S STANDARD HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

CONFEDERATE UNIFORMS - CIVIL WAR 1861 - 1865

THE STANDARD HISTORY OF ALL NATIONS AND RACES

Containing a Record of all the Peoples of the World from the Earliest Historical Times, with a Description of their Homes, Customs, and Religions; their Temples, Monuments, Literature, and Art

IN
TEN
VOLUMES

... BY ...

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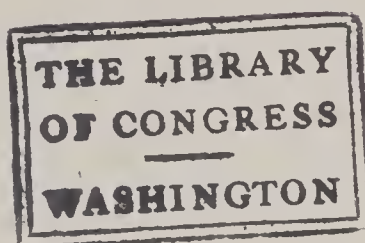


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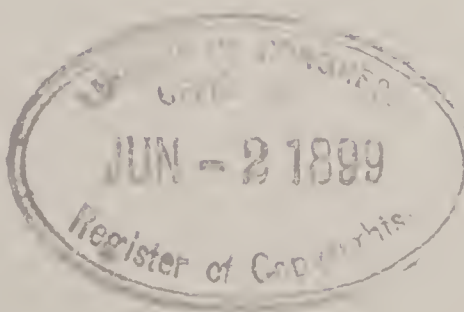
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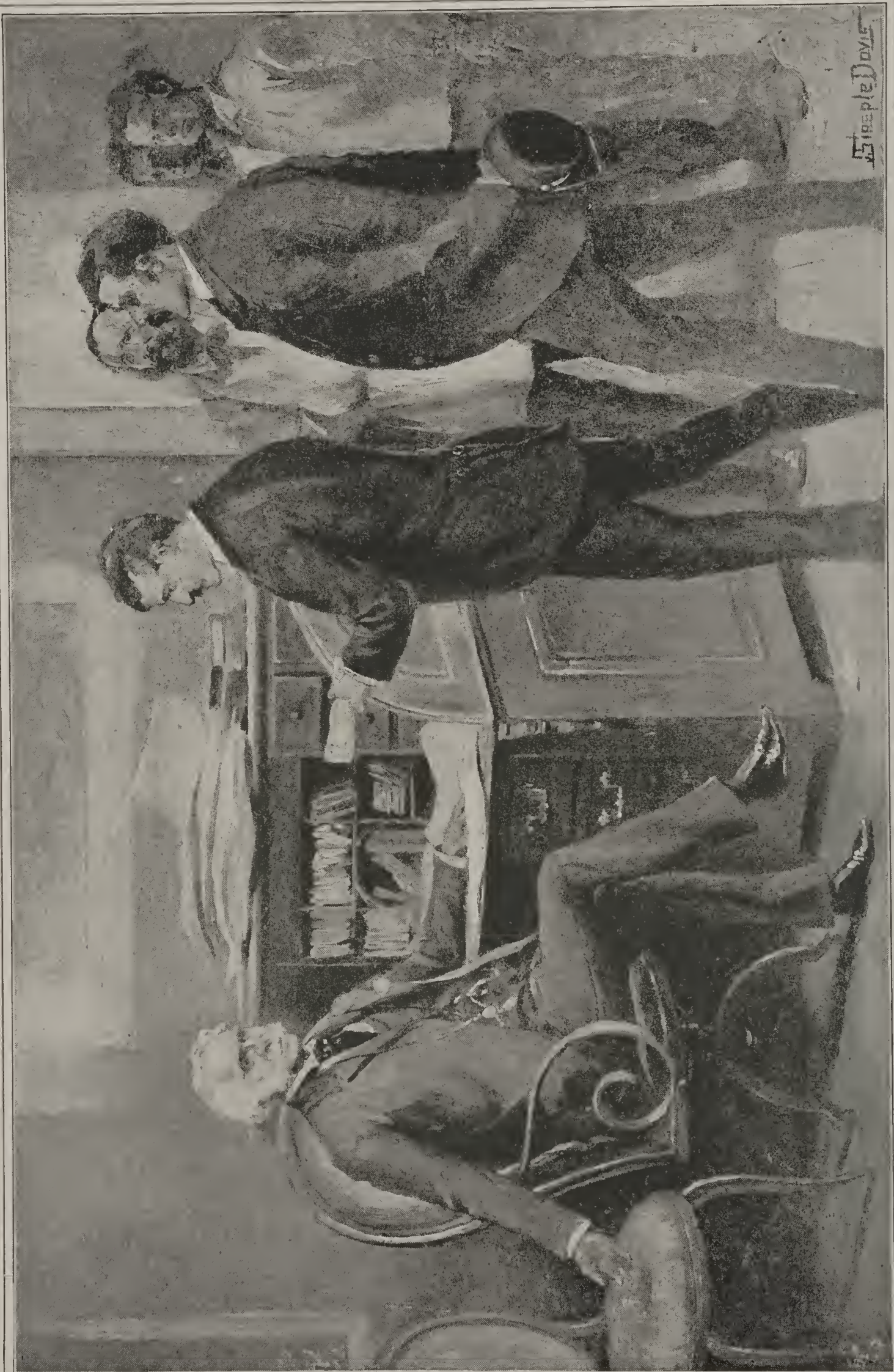
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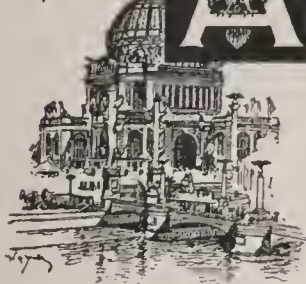


CHAPTER LXXXVIII

CLEVELAND'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION—1893-1897

[*Authorities:* The present chapter is devoted almost exclusively to a description of the World's Fair at Chicago. Such an expression in the days of our fathers would never have been thought of. The facilities for intercommunication were so rudimentary that they were taxed to the utmost by the County Fair. The advent of railroads and Morse's telegraph was followed, after an interval of readjustment to new conditions, by the State Fair. It was not, however, until after the introduction of the ocean cables that an International or World's Fair became a possibility. By means of the land and the ocean telegraphs the feat of putting "a girdle round the earth in forty minutes" has been realized, and enterprising men in every part of the habitable globe knew almost simultaneously what was being done in preparation for the great enterprise. Time and distance became factors of little moment. No such exposition of the products of nature, of human handicraft, and of human invention would have been dreamed of before the introduction of those space-annihilating agencies, the railroad, the ocean steamer, and the telegraph. The sources from which we have derived much valuable help in writing this chapter are Rand, McNally and Co.'s "A Week at the Fair," the official "History of the Mid-Winter Fair," the "History of the Cotton States Exposition," and contemporary publications.]

The
World's
Fair



The Administration Building



At noon on March 4, 1893, President Harrison became a plain citizen of the great republic, and a plain citizen, Grover Cleveland, became President of the United States. This quiet exchange of places is one of the most striking features of our Government.

President Cleveland selected the following Cabinet: Secretary of State, Walter Q. Gresham, of Illinois (succeeded by Richard Olney, of Massachusetts); Secretary of the Treasury, John G. Carlisle, of Kentucky; Secretary of War, Daniel S. Lamont, of New York; Attorney-General, Richard Olney, of Massachusetts (succeeded by Judson Hermon, of Ohio)

PERIOD VII

THE NEW
UNITED
STATES
1865
TO

—

The In-
augura-
tion

Postmaster-General, Wilson S. Bissell, of New York (succeeded by William L. Wilson, of West Virginia); Secretary of the Navy, Hilary A. Herbert, of Alabama; Secretary of the Interior, Hoke Smith, of Georgia (succeeded by David B. Francis, of Missouri); Secretary of Agriculture, J. Sterling Morton, of Nebraska.

The day of the inauguration was among the worst ever known in Washington. In the morning the ground was covered with snow, and the feathery particles were still blown slantingly in the wind. The streets were soon filled with icy slush. Not a few deaths were the direct result of exposure to the weather by the two hundred thousand visitors that crowded the city to witness the inauguration ceremonies.

Zachary Taylor was the first President who took the oath of office and delivered the inaugural address in the open air. Previous to 1849 it had been read in the Senate Chamber. Jefferson, as we have learned, was the first President to be inaugurated in Washington.

Washington's first inaugural was 1,300 words in length; his second only 134. John Adams's inaugural was 2,300 words long; Jefferson's, 2,100; Madison's, 1,100 on both occasions; Monroe's, 3,300 and 4,400; John Quincy Adams's, 2,900; Andrew Jackson's first and second, each 1,100; Van Buren employed 3,800 words, and William Henry Harrison, the most voluminous of them all, 8,500.

John Tyler, in entering upon the duties of President, after the death of Harrison, addressed his inaugural of 1,600 words to the public, and published it in the newspapers, Congress not being in session. Polk employed nearly 5,000 words, and Taylor, 100. Fillmore simply announced the death of Taylor in a message of 260 words sent in to each House of Congress, and delivered no inaugural.

Previous
Inaug-
urals

Franklin Pierce's address was 3,300 words; Lincoln's, on his first election, 3,500, and on his second only 500 words. Johnson took up the reins of Government after Lincoln's death in a brief message of 360 words. Grant's first inaugural was 1,100 words long; his second, 1,300. Hayes employed 2,400 words, and Garfield, 2,900.

Arthur followed the custom of other Vice-Presidents in succeeding to the Presidency through death by giving only a very short address of 400 words. Cleveland's first inaugural, which he committed to memory, was 1,600 words. Benjamin Harrison entered office with an inaugural of 4,500 words.



PRESIDENT CLEVELAND AND HIS SECOND CABINET

PERIOD VII

THE NEW
UNITED
STATES
1865
TO

The
Grandest
Celebra-
tion

THE WORLD'S COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION

The grandest celebration thus far in the history of our country was held in the city of Chicago to commemorate the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America by Christopher Columbus. So immense were the preliminary steps in this vast enterprise that they could not be completed in 1892, the true anniversary, which was therefore held one year later.

The strife for the honor of the World's Fair was keen among the leading cities, and New York was confident of securing the prize; but Western push and enterprise succeeded, and, on the 24th of February, 1890, Congress named Chicago as the favored place. On the 2d of the following July the site was selected. This extended from the point nearest the city, two and a half miles to the southern extremity of Jackson Park, comprising nearly seven hundred acres of attractively laid out grounds and lakes. Lake Michigan reached along the entire front, while in the background was the extensive South Park system. The site agreed upon by the Board of Directors was the section known as Jackson Park and the Midway Plaisance. Jackson Park has a frontage of one and a half miles on Lake Michigan, and contains six hundred acres of ground, while the Midway Plaisance, connecting Jackson and Washington Parks, is a mile long and six hundred feet wide, affording an additional area of eighty-five acres.

To gain a clear idea of the enormous extent of the Columbian Exposition, let us compare it with the other world's fairs :

Other
World's
Fairs

Location and Year.	Acres Oc- cupied.	Number of Feet Under Roof.	Number of Ex- hibitors.	Total At- tendance.	Duration of Fair days.	Total Receipts.	Guarantee.	Cost.
London, 1857.....	21½	700,000	17,000	6,039,196	144	\$1,780,000.00	British Gov't.	*
Paris, 1855	24½	1,866,000	22,000	5,162,330	200	6,441,200.00	French Gov't.	\$5,000,000
London, 1862.....	23½	1,291,800	28,653	6,211,103	121	1,644,260.00	English Gov't	2,300,000
Paris, 1867	87	3,371,904	52,000	10,200,000	217	2,103,675.00	French Gov't.	*
Vienna, 1873.....	280	2,963,421	142,000	7,254,687	186	6,971,832.00	\$4,500,000	7,850,000
Philadelphia, 1876	236	1,688,858	30,864	9,910,996	159	3,813,724.00	2,510,000	*
Paris, 1878	100	1,858,778	40,366	16,032,725	191	2,531,650.00	2,250,000	*
Paris, 1889	173	1,000,000	55,000	28,149,353	183	8,300,000.00	3,600,000	6,500,000
Chicago, 1893.....	645	5,000,000	65,422	21,530,854 Paid ad- missions.	183	33,290,065.58	19,500,000	18,750,000

* Run at a great loss. No report ever made, and exact amount of deficit cannot be obtained.

The following foreign governments made liberal appropriations for exhibits: Argentine Republic, Austria, Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil,

Colombia, Costa Rica, Denmark, Danish West Indies, Ecuador, France, Germany, Great Britain, Barbadoes, British Guiana, British Honduras, Canada, Cape Colony, Ceylon, India, Jamaica, Leeward Islands, New South Wales, New Zealand, Trinidad, Greece, Guatemala, Hawaii, Honduras, Haiti, Japan, Liberia, Mexico, Morocco, Netherlands, Dutch Guiana, Dutch West Indies, Nicaragua, Norway,

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THE TRANSPORTATION BUILDING

Orange Free State, Paraguay, Peru, Russia, Salvador, San Domingo, Spain, Cuba, Sweden, Uruguay.

It followed as a matter of course that every State and Territory in the Union entered heartily into the plan, the total appropriations by them amounting to more than \$6,000,000. Chicago came forward with gigantic contributions, and it was found at the close of the Exhibition that the total number of paid admissions was \$22,000,000, and that the receipts exceeded the expenses by some \$2,000,000.

The original plan contemplated ten main buildings: Manufactures, Administration, Machinery, Agriculture, Electricity, Mines, Transportation, Horticulture, Fisheries, and the Venetian Village, but a change of plan took in the Art Galleries and the Woman's Building, and finally the Forestry, Dairy, Stock Pavilion, Terminal

The
Original
Plan

PERIOD VII Station, Music Hall, Peristyle, Casino, Choral, Anthropological, and many others were added.

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On October 21, 1892, the grounds and buildings were opened and dedicated with appropriate ceremonies by Levi P. Morton, Vice-President of the United States, and presented by President Higinbotham, of the World's Columbian Exposition, to President Palmer,



THE MINES AND MINING BUILDING

of the World's Columbian Commission. The Exposition opened May 1, 1893, and closed October 30 following.

The Transportation Building

The
Golden
Doorway

The dimensions of this structure were 256 by 960 feet, with an annex 425 by 900 feet, the total floor area being nine and one-half acres. The main entrance consisted of a huge single arch, ornamented with carvings, bas-reliefs, and mural paintings, and being treated entirely in gold leaf; the entrance bore the appropriate name of the Golden Doorway. Two such buildings cover an area of nearly 14 ½ acres.

As implied, the exhibits of the Transportation Building included

about everything used as an aid to transportation, from the tiny baby carriage to the massive locomotive. There were various canoes, models of ships, showing the progress of ship-building from its infancy, a model of the *Santa Maria*, the boat in which "Grace Darling," in 1838, went to the rescue of the wrecked steamer *Foufarshire*, electric and steam elevators, exhibits of naval warfare and

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THE GOVERNMENT BUILDING

coast defence, and the Bethlehem steam hammer of 125 tons, the largest in the world, being 91 feet in height.

In the Annex were different railway exhibits. There were German locomotives and coaches, a locomotive weighing 107 tons, and the locomotive "Mississippi," built in England in 1834; a coach of 1836, the latest English locomotive, and a model of Stephenson's "Rocket" and tender of the old Liverpool and Manchester railway, made in 1829; a model of a steam carriage invented and built by Joseph Quinot, of France, in 1759; a model of Trevithick's locomotive of 1803, several strap-rails on which the locomotive ran; also the first cable-grip car built, including a section of cableway, together with many other similar curiosities.

Exhibits
in the
Annex

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Exhibits
in the
Gallery

In the gallery were shown many varieties of bicycles, the boat and steam fixtures built and navigated by Captain John Stevens in 1804, the "John Bull," claimed to be the oldest locomotive in America, first used on the Camden and Amboy road in 1831, together with several passenger cars used on the same line in 1836. There were also the two cars on which the great Krupp gun was shipped to the Fair from Sparrows Point, Md. The gun weighed 270,000 pounds, bridge 47,000 pounds, each car 64,000 pounds, making a total of 445,000 pounds.

The Mines and Mining Building

The dimensions of this building were 350 by 700 feet. As the name implies, the exhibit consisted of articles relating to mines and mining, which were grouped into 123 classes. Among these were: cement from Heidelberg, mosaics in Carlsbad stone, French asphalt specimens, French work in gold, platinum, and aluminum, silver and ores from New South Wales, marble, granite, nickel, copper, and platinum ores from Ontario, ores from British Columbia, Canada, Japan, Russia, Brazil, Cape of Good Hope, Spain, Mexico, and Chili, with a statue of "Liberty Enlightening the World" carved in salt.

In another portion of the same building were various ores from Colorado, Iowa, New Mexico, Arizona, Utah, Washington, Wyoming, Idaho, California, South Dakota, Wisconsin, Michigan, Ohio, Kentucky, Oregon, Pennsylvania, and other States. In this exhibit were also shown Tiffany's collection of precious stones, the statue of the "Silver Queen," German precious stones, tin plate, and a meteorite that fell in Arizona weighing more than half a ton.

The Government Building

Exhibits
in the
Govern-
ment
Building

This building, 345 by 415 feet, and consisting of several departments, contained articles of surpassing interest, over which one could muse for hours without weariness. It was devoted to the several departments of the United States Government.

Perhaps the most interesting exhibits in the Smithsonian Institution Department were the cases of stuffed fowls, flamingoes and nests, a case of humming-birds showing 133 different varieties, a case showing 106 families of American birds, American game-birds, Rocky Mountain goats and sheep, armadilloes from Texas, sea-otters whose fur is extremely valuable, American bison, Pacific walrus, a

collection of 300 kinds of leather, crocodiles of the Nile, and crocodile-birds, fishes, and reptiles preserved in alcohol, and an extensive collection of coins and metals.

In the department of ethnology were figures of Eskimos and specimens of their art and industry, Canadian Indians, Indian tepee or wigwam, members of different tribes, examples of ancient pottery, models of ruins found in Arizona, while the antiquities included the following remarkable articles: a brass lamp, used at the feast of the dedication of Hunneikiah, 169 years before Christ; scrolls of the law of Tarah, made in Asia Minor in the tenth century; silver spice-box of the time of Christ; phylacteries or tefflin used by the Jews at morning prayers, except on Saturdays; knife used by priests in slaying animals for sacrifice, and a Koran stand inlaid with mother-of-pearl.

Passing into the State Department, no one could fail to be impressed by the array of treasures. First of all was what seemed to be the Declaration of Independence as it came from the hand of its immortal author, Thomas Jefferson, and with the signatures of the signers, written more than one hundred years before. It was viewed with great interest, and probably all believed that it was the original Declaration itself, but truth compels us to say that such was not the fact. It was only a copy, for under no circumstances will the Government permit the genuine Declaration to leave the archives at Washington, where it is guarded with the most jealous care.

There, however, was the original petition of the United Colonies to George III., presented by Benjamin Franklin in 1774, together with the original journal of the Continental Congress. General Jackson, one of the most remarkable Presidents we ever had, was recalled by his sword, and with what reverence we looked upon Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation which struck the shackles from every bondman in the United States. Americans can feel little respect for George III., whose stubbornness cost him his colonies in this country, but his autograph letter was read with strange feelings by the myriad thousands who paused to study it. Of more living interest were the various proclamations of our own Presidents with their autographs, letters written by Washington, Franklin, the Adamses, Jefferson, Madison, Polk, Van Buren, Monroe, Lincoln, Grant, Arthur, and Hayes.

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The De-

partment

of Eth-

nology

Histori-

cal Docu-

ments

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The historic letters included those penned by Napoleon, Alexander of Russia, and other foreign potentates. There also were the punch-bowl presented by Washington to Colonel Eyre, the Webster-Ashburton treaty signed by Queen Victoria, and a shark's tooth sent as a treaty by the King of Samoa.

Precious
Relics

Around the circle under the dome were other relics equally precious to every patriotic heart, among them being Washington's commission as commander-in-chief of the colonial forces, his sword, his diary, and his account-books and army reports; the sash used by Lafayette to bind up his wound at Brandywine; the calumet pipe smoked by Washington at the age of seventeen; Benjamin Franklin's cane; a waistcoat embroidered by Marie Antoinette; wampum made before the discovery of America; camp service of pewter, used by Washington throughout the Revolution; Bible brought over in the *Mayflower* by John Alden in 1620, and a part of the torch carried by "Old Put" into the wolf's den.

In the middle of the space under the dome was a section of one of the famous big trees of California. It was 26 feet in diameter at the base and 20 feet at the top. Within the hollowed-out portion was a stairway.

Passing into the Department of Justice, the eye was caught by a number of articles of great historic value. These included a warrant for arrest and imprisonment for debt, issued in 1721, during the reign of George I. It will be remembered that the horrible sufferings of the wretched debtors thus thrown into jail led to the colonization of Georgia by Oglethorpe.

Colonial
Relics

There were also a page from the Plymouth records of 1620 and 1621; a land patent issued in 1628; the commission from William III. creating the common pleas court in Massachusetts in 1696; the agreement in regard to enlarging Salem church in 1628; a page of record from one of the hideous witchcraft trials, held in 1692; the earliest charter of free government ever known, the Compact of Providence; a door-knocker that was brought to this country in the *Mayflower*, and the portraits of the Justices and Attorney-Generals of the Supreme Court of the United States.

Among the relics in the War Department were: A six-pounder bronze gun presented to the colonial forces by Lafayette; the four-pounder gun that fired the first shot in the War for the Union; the rifled gun that fired the last shot; cannon used in the Mexican War;

some very old cast-iron cannon found in the Hudson River; Chinese cannon captured at Corea; bronze cannon captured at Yorktown; the oldest Blanchard lathe in existence; the flag displayed at the most northern point ever reached by man; boot-legs from which the starving Greeley party made soup; relics of Sir John Franklin; a wagon that accompanied General Sherman's train through all his

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THE ELECTRICITY BUILDING

marcnes; the sacred shirt worn by Sitting Bull when Custer was killed in the battle of the Little Big Horn, and figures of officers and soldiers in the uniform of the War of 1812.

The Treasury Department was represented by the United States Mint in operation, a collection of historic medals, and the coins of various countries, ancient and modern; a ten-thousand dollar gold certificate and a silver certificate of the same denomination, with models of lighthouses and government telescopes and chronographs.

With what longing eyes did the philatelists gaze on the collection of stamps in the Post-Office Department, including all the issues from 1847 to 1893! What a prize they would have formed could they have been added to one's collection! In addition there was a surprising assortment of the curiosities that find their way to the

Valuable
Postage
Stamps

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Dead Letter Office, with specimens of the locks used in the postal service since 1800; a Rocky Mountain mail-coach made in 1868, and a representation of dogs drawing a sled with the United States mail.

The exhibits of the Patent Office, Interior Department, Geological Survey, Agricultural Department, and the United States Commission exceeded in value volumes of instruction upon those various subjects.

The Electricity Building

This building was 350 by 700 feet, and cost more than \$400,000. We have all learned something of the marvellous discoveries made in electricity by Edison, the most wonderful inventor of the age. A few years ago, any one who had prophesied the phonograph or telephone or kinetoscope would have been set down as a lunatic or a crank; so that when we hear of some astounding feat Edison has almost accomplished, the safer plan is not to express any doubt, but "suspend judgment" until we learn the facts.

In a recent interview, Edison stated that he could make a fluid that could be ejected through a nozzle to a distance of 600 feet and would kill with the quickness of lightning all whom a drop touched. If a fortification were provided with a hose prepared to throw this fluid, which carried so deadly a shock of electricity with it, no army could approach within the distance named without being destroyed. A single man could defend a fort against a hundred thousand.

Edison had also a system of torpedoes that would be instantly destructive to the most formidable naval fleet in the world while it was still miles from our coast; his system of using dynamite by balloons, of dynamite guns and other appalling inventions would make human beings like chaff in a cyclone. Awful as all this seems, the beneficent result would be in the end to make war so destructive to life, that no nation or people would dare to go to war. So it is to be hoped that he will live to perfect his stupendous inventions, and thus usher in the day of universal arbitration and universal peace.

A Hint of
the
Future

In the electricity buildings, therefore, the exhibits, while entrancing of themselves, were still more so in their promise of what is yet to come. Doubtless we are on the verge of the most astounding discoveries that have come to man since creation,—discoveries that will affect civilization throughout the coming ages; such, for instance, as

the new form of light that passes through opaque substances with the same facility as through those that are perfectly transparent.

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Machinery Hall

Machinery Hall formed one of the most graceful structures of the Exhibition. Its dimensions were 492 by 550 feet, with an annex 490 by 550 feet. The total cost was \$1,200,000, with a floor space



MACHINERY HALL

of more than seventeen acres. The power plant was the largest in the world, supplying as it did 24,000 horse-power, of which 17,000 was devoted to electricity.

The vast number of exhibits in Machinery Hall were divided into eighty-six classes, grouped into:

An
Immense
Exhibit

1. Motors and apparatus for the generation and transmission of power, hydraulic and pneumatic apparatus.
2. Fire-engines, apparatus and appliances for extinguishing fire.
3. Machine tools and machines for working metals.
4. Machinery for the manufacture of textile fabrics and clothing.

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The
Wonders
of
Machin-
ery Hall

Colum-
bus
Relics

5. Machines for working wood.
6. Machines and apparatus for type-setting, printing, stamping, and embossing, and for making books and paper working.
7. Lithography, zincography, and color printing.
8. Photo-mechanical and other mechanical processes for illustrating, etc.
9. Miscellaneous hand tools, machines and apparatus used in various arts.
10. Machines for working stones, clay, and other minerals.
11. Machinery used in the preparation of foods, etc.

The Americans are an inventive people, and one could spend, not hours, but days amid the wonders of Machinery Hall, speculating over the possibilities that yet await the explorers in a field of almost infinite extent.

One of the curiosities which attracted universal attention was the exact reproduction of the Convent of Santa Maria de la Rabida (Saint Mary of the Frontier), where, as we learned in the first part of this history, Christopher Columbus, tired and dispirited, stopped with his child and craved food and lodging, and from which, when he finally went forth, it was to discover the New World.

It cost \$50,000 to build this model, which was stored with such precious relics that it was guarded night and day by United States troops. The collection, incomparable in its way, was made by Hon. William Eleroy Curtis, who traversed all Europe searching for relics of Columbus that might be placed on exhibition at the World's Fair. His success excelled all expectations.

The famous Convent of La Rabida stands a few miles north of Cadiz, on the Atlantic coast of Spain, about half-way between the Straits of Gibraltar and the boundary of Portugal. According to tradition, it was built in the reign of the Emperor Trajan in the second century, and was reconstructed in the eleventh century during the Moorish occupation of Spain, and used for a fortress.

Three miles above La Rabida, on the Rio Tinto, is the village Palos de Moguer, now a lonely hamlet inhabited by a few fishermen and farmers. It was from this port that Columbus set sail, August 3, 1492, on the voyage that ended in the discovery of the New World. As we recall, the brothers Pinzon furnished one of the vessels and commanded two. The ruins of the houses in which the Pinzons lived are still to be seen, and their descendants are among

the leading people of that section. The Moorish mosque, converted into the church of St. George, on the hill just beyond the village, seems not to have changed in any way during the centuries, except to take on the grayer hue of time, since that day in 1492 when the alcalde rose in the pulpit and read the proclamation of Ferdinand and Isabella, commanding the people of Palos to furnish Columbus with two ships. The records of the parish contain the names of the sailors that went on the memorable voyage, having received communion on the morning of their departure.

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In this model of La Rabida were placed, as we have stated, many priceless treasures, kept under careful guard night and day, for they were only loaned, and, in accordance with the pledge, were returned to their owners at the close of the Exposition.

Priceless
Treas-
ures

This list is so remarkable that it should be given in full, for it may be doubted whether, at least for a century to come, the curiosities will ever be seen together again.

Geographical knowledge and the science of navigation at the time of Columbus :

1. Maps, charts, and globes anterior to Columbus.
2. Nautical and astronomical instruments.
3. Models of vessels.
4. Evidence of pre-Columbian discoveries.
5. Arms, armor, equipments, etc., of the time.
6. Books known to Columbus, and portraits of their authors.

The court of Ferdinand and Isabella :

1. Portraits, autographs, and relics of the sovereigns ; pictures of scenes identified with their lives, their tombs, and monuments.
2. Portraits and relics of persons identified with the career of Columbus at court, or associated with the discovery.

Youth and early life of Columbus :

1. Views of places associated with his birth and boyhood.
2. Scenes identified with his career in Portugal and the Madeira Islands.

The career of Columbus at the court of Spain :

1. Scenes and places at Cordova, Granada, Salamanca, Seville, and other cities identified with Columbus.
2. The Monastery of Santa Maria de la Rabida ; illustrations of the life of Columbus there.
3. The port of Palos and its environs.

Old
World
Scenes

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New
World
Scenes

The first voyage of Columbus :

1. Models and pictures of the caravels.
2. Fac-similes of charts, nautical instruments, books, costumes, arms, armor, etc., used on the voyage, and model showing the course of the voyage.
3. The discovery and landing at Watling's Island.
4. Views and relics of Watling's Island and other places visited on the voyage.
5. The construction of the fort at La Navidad. Views and relics of the place.
6. Views of Lisbon and other places visited on the voyage homeward.
7. Reception of Columbus on his return to Spain; views of Barcelona. The scene of the egg.
8. Strange things seen on the voyage. Fac-similes of relics brought home by the voyagers.

The second voyage of Columbus :

1. Views of Cadiz, from whence he sailed.
2. Views of the islands discovered on the second voyage, and evidence of cannibalism illustrated by old prints.
3. Remains, views, and relics of Isabella, the first settlement in the New World.

4. Explorations of the mountains of Cibaô; El Puerto de los Hidalgos; views of La Vega and Santo Cerro; the cross of Columbus, Santo Tomas.

5. The discovery of Jamaica; Santa Gloria and St. Ann's Bay; illustrations of association with the natives.

Scenes
of the
First and
Second
Voyages

6. The return to Santo Domingo; adventures with the Indians; "Eat gold, Christian, eat gold"; founding of the city of Santiago.

7. Queen Anacaona, and the founding of the city of Santo Domingo; scenes in that city.

8. Return of Columbus, and scenes at Burgos when he was received by the sovereigns.

The third voyage of Columbus :

1. Views of Trinidad and other places visited by Columbus.
2. The mutiny at Santo Domingo.
3. The arrest and imprisonment of Columbus; the castle in which he was confined; the admiral in chains.
4. Reception by the sovereigns on his return to Spain; scenes at Seville and Segovia.

The fourth voyage of Columbus :		PERIOD VII	
1. Scenes in Honduras and other places visited.		THE NEW	
2. The wreck at St. Christopher's Cove; the mutiny of Porras; views of the place.		UNITED	
3. The return of Columbus.		STATES	
The last days of Columbus :		1865	
1. His home at Seville.		TO	
2. The death and burial; his will; the house in which he died.			
3. Removal of his remains; the cathedral at Santo Domingo; the cathedral at Havana.			
4. Monuments erected to his memory.		Last Scenes Regarding Colum- bus	
5. The portraits of Columbus.			
6. Portraits of his family and descendants (genealogy).			
7. Relics of Columbus; autograph letters; the contract, commission, and instructions received by him from the sovereigns of Spain; letters from Ferdinand and Isabella.			
The publication of the discovery :			
1. Copies of the first books about America; maps, manuscripts, fac-similes, and illustrations.			
2. Views of Saint Dié, and the persons identified with the christening of the continent.			
3. Relics and portraits of Amerigo Vespucci and other explorers.		Mexican Scenes	
4. Growth of geographical knowledge during the century following the discovery, illustrated by fac-similes, books, maps, charts, etc.			
Archæological and ethnological collections showing the condition of the natives :			
1. Models of habitations; implements, utensils, and other illustrations of life and customs.			
2. Portraits and pictures, costumes, canoes, weapons, etc.			
The conquest of Mexico :			
1. Illustrations of the condition of the Aztecs.			
2. Arms, armor, etc., of the conquistadores, showing how the natives were overcome.			
3. Portraits, pictures, and relics of Cortez and those who were associated with him.			
4. Maps, charts, and printed volumes illustrating the conquest.			
The discovery and conquest of other portions of America :			
1. Collections showing the condition of the natives in other parts of the continent.			

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The
Memory
of
Colum-
bus

2. Portraits and relics of other discoverers and early voyagers.
3. Maps, charts, and printed volumes showing the progress of civilization and the growth of geographical knowledge.

As Americans we have always regretted that America was not named in honor of its true discoverer, and it was a pleasing surprise to the visitor to this building, therefore, to note a large map on which were 105 places, including districts, counties, and towns, whose names show the reverential respect in which Columbus is held and will be held to the end of time.

A short distance away were moored the models of the three famous caravels, the *Santa Maria*, the *Nina*, and the *Pinta*. There is no doubt that these are exact copies, to the minutest detail, of the small vessels that left Palos in August, 1492, on the most momentous voyage ever made by man. The Spanish Government built the *Santa Maria* and presented it to the United States, and the three made their first public appearance at Huelva, Spain, during the Columbus festivities held there in October, 1892. They started on their voyage across the Atlantic, February 18th following, the *Santa Maria* being commanded by Captain Concas, of the Spanish navy, and convoyed by a Spanish man-of-war. The *Nina*, commanded by Lieut. J. C. Colwell, of the United States navy, was convoyed by our cruiser *Newark*, while the *Pinta*, commanded by Lieutenant Howard, was convoyed by the *Bennington*. The officers and crews had a taste of the discomforts attending the original voyage, but reached Havana without mishap. They formed the most striking feature of the grand naval review, held in New York in April.

A hardly less interesting exhibit was the exact reproduction of the Viking ship discovered in a burial mound at Gokstad, Norway, in 1880. It was in just such a vessel as this that Lief, the son of Eric the Red, crossed the Atlantic to the coast of New England nearly a thousand years ago. Captain Magnus Anderson superintended the building of this boat, which was brought through the lakes and exhibited at the Fair in conjunction with the Columbus caravels.

The
Viking
Ship

The *Viking* is seventy-six feet in length, the prow being ornamented with a huge and finely carved dragon's head and the stern with a dragon's tail. Along the outside of the bulwarks were rows of embellished shields of striking beauty. There is a small deck fore and aft, the rest being open. Two water-tight compartments afforded refuge for the men in stormy weather. The rigging con-

sists of one mast with a single yard, all of which could be taken down, but there were the immense oars to be used in calm weather by those sea kings of the mighty brawn and muscle.

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Agricultural Building

This structure was 800 feet long and 500 feet wide, with an annex 550 by 312 feet, erected at a cost of \$620,000. The exhibits



AGRICULTURAL BUILDING

in the main building included cocoa, chocolate, and drugs from the Netherlands; wood pulp and revolving stand from Sweden; curious shoes and agricultural products from Denmark; agricultural products from France, the most striking being the Menier chocolate tower, which weighed 50 tons and was worth \$40,000; fertilizers and products from Uruguay; an elephant tusk seven and a half feet long; wools, woods, and feathers from the Cape of Good Hope, the most attractive perhaps being a live Zulu "boy," six feet seven and a half inches tall; woods from New South Wales; a cheese from Canada weighing eleven tons; tea and coffee from Ceylon; a model

The
Agricul-
tural
Exhibit

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A Varied
Exhibit

of Gladstone's estate at Hawarden Castle, and appropriate exhibits from Germany, Spain, Brazil, Paraguay, Ecuador, British Guiana, Japan, and Mexico.

In another section were specimens of what are grown in New York, Missouri, Washington, Ohio, Illinois, Pennsylvania, Wyoming, Colorado, Iowa, Nebraska, Michigan, Wisconsin, Montana, North Dakota, Maine, New Hampshire, Oklahoma, Connecticut, and Massachusetts. In the New England exhibit were excellent examples of the spinning-wheel of our ancestors, corn-cribs, and other conveniences, or rather necessities. An ingenious monument in soap showed the origin of the American flag. The articles in this building were so numerous that it would be tedious to read even a list of them.

The Manufactures and Liberal Arts Building

This vast building was 787 feet wide and 1,687 feet long, with a ground area of about thirty-one acres and a gallery space of forty-four acres. It was the largest building in the world, and the largest roof structure ever made. Its construction required 17,000,000 feet of lumber, 13,000,000 pounds of steel, and 2,000,000 pounds of iron, with a total cost of \$1,700,000. By way of comparison, it has been stated that any church in Chicago could be placed in the vestibule of St. Peter's church at Rome, but this building was three times as large as St. Peter's. The Roman Coliseum of ancient Rome was capable of seating 80,000 persons, but this structure was four times as large. In the central hall, which was a single room without a supporting pillar, 75,000 persons could be comfortably seated, while the whole building would seat 300,000 persons. There were 7,000,000 feet of lumber in the floors, and it took five car-loads of nails to secure the 215 car-loads of lumber to the joists. To grow the amount of lumber required in its construction would take 1,100 acres of Michigan pine land, while the iron and steel in the roof would build two Brooklyn bridges. There were eleven acres of glass in the skylights, and the roof lacked only eleven feet of being as high as the Bunker Hill monument in Boston. Its ground plan was twice the size of the great pyramid of Cheops.

An Im-
mense
Struct-
ure

One was awed by such immensity, and, as he stood gazing about him in bewilderment, he felt like a man pausing on the margin of fairyland, stretching beyond sight in every direction and inviting

him to lose himself inextricably in exploring its myriad wonders. There was but one satisfactory method of enjoying this wonderful display; that was by studying the plan of the arrangements and following a carefully laid-out tour. In recalling the fast-fading memories of the great Exposition, we can aim only to speak of its most striking features.

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Thus Italy was represented by two majolica paintings, valued at



THE MANUFACTURERS AND LIBERAL ARTS BUILDING

\$20,000 each; the “Lion and His Prey,” in bronze; a wonderful collection of statuary in marble and bronze; Florentine mosaics; 500 pieces of statuary and carving in wood; gilt figures; brocades and tapestry, and lace worth \$1,000 a yard; pottery and glassware, and an almost endless variety of mirrors.

Spain showed a reproduction of a Moorish cathedral at Cordova, built early in the thirteenth century, with other exhibits of the most interesting nature, including rare articles from Persia, Mexico, and Siam.

Exhibits
of Spain
and her
Colonies

Passing into the next section, the eye was delighted by the

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mosaics, precious stones, and the costumes of the natives of Brazil; decorated wood imitations and delicate miniature scales of Holland; decorated earthenware of the Netherlands; wood carving, scientific instruments, and watches from Switzerland; ware and pottery from Monaco, including a vase owned by the Pope. The last is of priceless value, there being only one other like it in the world. It required four years to make it.

Various
Exhibits

The next section displayed specimens of bricks, steel saws, musical instruments, and Indian curiosities from Canada; leather and furniture from New South Wales; old Hindoo idols, ivory carving, antique candlestick, teakwood bracket, hand-cutting and carving on metal from India; fine tea and coffee; various kinds of wood and native curiosities from Ceylon; an inlaid wood table; specimens of women's work, and different kinds of wood from Jamaica.

Great Britain made a fine display in the adjoining section, the most pleasing of which were:

A china dessert service used by Queen Victoria; companion vases representing "Strength" and "Beauty"; a reproduction of the famous Jubilee Vase presented to Queen Victoria; service used by Count Airlie in 1784; a Columbus shield of silver; a clock showing time at Greenwich, Madrid, Paris, and Chicago, and a reproduction of the banquet hall in Hatfield House, the historical seat of the Marquis of Salisbury.

The principal features of the German section were:

Costly shields, plates, tankards, etc., gifts of honor to the emperors, and to Bismarck and Von Moltke; furniture from a room in the palace of the King of Bavaria; royal Saxon porcelain exhibit; Saxon laces and cloths; heroic bronze group, "Germania," for the German parliament building, loaned by the Emperor; "Christ's Descent from the Cross"; collective exhibit of clocks and watches; silk and satin fabrics, laces and embroideries, porcelain, majolica, and iron ranges.

In the Austrian section were:

The
Austrian
Section

Fac-simile of the salon of the Duchess of Metternich; portrait woven in silk of the Emperor; albums belonging to the imperial family; gifts of honor to the Emperor—vases, jewels, etc.; collective turney exhibit by thirty-five Vienna manufacturers in amber and meerschaum, pearl, metal, ivory, and wood; numerous exhibits of porcelain, majolica, terra-cotta, faience, and

Bohemian glassware; and publishers' display of art books, photo-gravures, etc.

Undoubtedly Japan is the most remarkable nation of modern times. Her exhibit at the Centennial in 1876 attracted universal admiration, but that which was shown at Chicago was far more striking, demonstrating as it did the marvellous ingenuity of this people, who, as may be said, at one bound have leaped to the front among the leading nations of the globe. The exhibits of toilet articles, chemicals, fireworks, papers, lacquer work, inlaid work, screens, and hangings were, as a matter of course, unapproachable in their way, while the silk, vases, and metal statues were exquisite in design and execution.

The most wonderful exhibit, however, made by Japan was the famous iron eagle. This was two feet in height, with a spread of wings from tip to tip of five feet, the weight being 133 pounds. The head moved as easily and naturally as that of a living bird. The eagle was covered with more than 3,000 feathers, imitating nature so closely that a microscope was necessary to detect the difference. Every feather was made by hand, and the lines could be counted by hundreds and thousands. In making these lines the sharp tool used had to be replaced at every third or fourth line in order to preserve absolute uniformity. The artist was engaged continuously for five years in perfecting this remarkable creation, and had before him a bird that he had killed and stuffed, and another live one in a cage. It is safe to say that nowhere else in the world than Japan could such a marvel be produced.

Norway naturally showed some beautiful specimens of mountain scenery, costumes, furs, and stuffed animals, with sledges, wood carving, and canoes; while among those displayed by Russia were beautiful pottery, fabrics, costumes, and furs.

Naturally China was well represented in the line of teas, silks, and ingenious specimens of fireworks.

In the Belgium section was a twelve-fronted vase, ornamented in colors, and made by a process now lost to the world. There was also a fine statue of "Leonidas at Thermopylæ" and of "Innocence Troubled by the Loves," a Florentine bronze. Besides, there were elegant bronzes, vases, laces, fans, paintings, pottery and china, tapestries, lamps, and cases of birds.

The display by France was bewildering in its beauty, comprising,

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The
Japanese
Exhibit

The
Belgium
Section

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among other things, bronze statuary and armory, Glanger vases, Egyptian wares, electric candelabra, the famous Doré vase, and French dolls. Of the Susse Frères bronzes, the "Defence of the Flag" and the "Song of Departure" were valued at \$6,000 each, and a bronzed ebony cabinet was worth \$13,000.

Tiffany's exhibit in the adjoining section was valued at half a million dollars, including gold and silver ingots, diamonds and precious stones, while the Meriden Britannia Company's mahogany and glass palace, containing gold and silver ware, was almost as valuable.

A convincing proof of American ingenuity was the Century Clock of the Waterbury Watch Company. Every piece in it was carved by hand, the entire labor consuming ten years, at a cost of \$80,000. In different parts of the clock were miniature workshops in operation showing all the prominent inventions since Whitney's cotton-gin. Another was a locomotive made of spool silk.

In a section near at hand were a revolver worth \$350, part of an Arizona petrified forest, and the boat *Sapolio*, fourteen and a half feet long, in which Captain Andrews crossed the Atlantic.

In the gallery of this immense structure were many educational exhibits from Spain and from different States in our own country. One could not fail to become wearied in studying these instructive exhibits, which showed a certain sameness, but the flagging interest would kindle anew when the "Century Booth" was entered, for there the eyes rested upon the manuscript of President Lincoln's inaugural address; the original draft of the proclamation calling out 75,000 militia, April 15, 1861; his bill for his first surveying; his answer to a challenge from Gen. James Shields; manuscript of his speech on presenting General Grant with his command; the manuscript of his proclamation of amnesty to the States; Jefferson Davis's letter to President Lincoln; correspondence of General Sherman and Senator John Sherman; pencil used by General Lee in signing his surrender to General Grant, and manuscripts of Longfellow, Tennyson, Whittier, and other well-known poets.

Fine Arts Building

The building devoted to fine arts was 320 by 500 feet, with two annexes each 120 by 200 feet, erected at a cost of \$670,000. The collection of painting and statuary from all parts of the world was

the finest ever exhibited anywhere, and it would be useless to attempt even the most meagre description of it.

The Leather Building was 150 by 575 feet, and among the curiosities shown were machines in operation, each of which turned out 1,000 pairs of shoes a day.

The Forestry Building was 208 by 528 feet, and no iron was used in its construction, wooden pins taking the place of bolts and rods.

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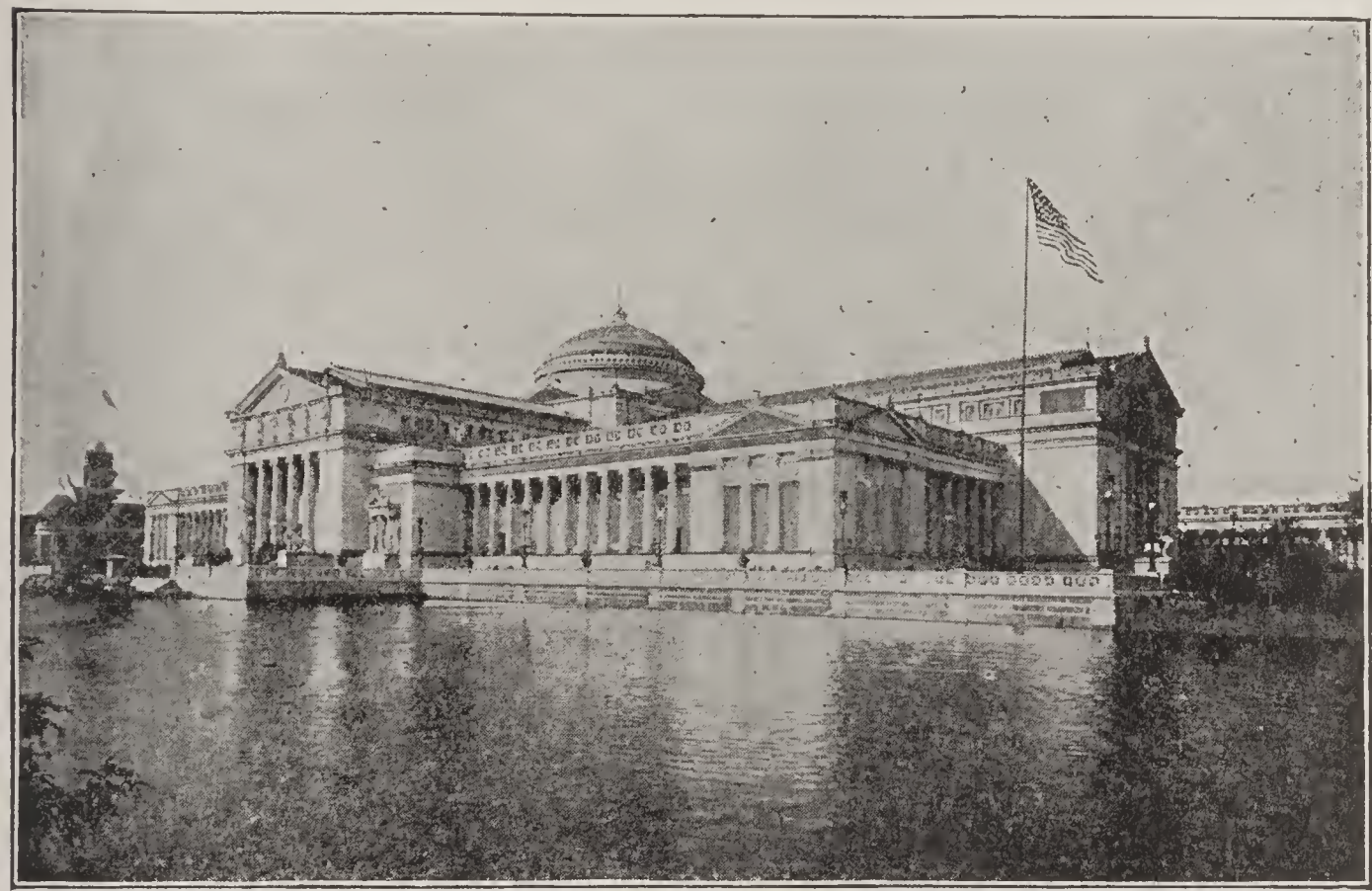
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TO



FINE ARTS BUILDING

A study of the exhibits gave one a fair idea of the almost endless variety of wood grown in various parts of the Union, besides those of New South Wales, Mexico, Brazil, Germany, and Paraguay.

Horticultural Building

The dimensions of this building were 250 by 998 feet. In the dome were shown a miniature mountain and a pyramid of shrubbery; a crystal cavern under the mountain; a century plant; a sago palm; a model of the Capitol at Washington in climbing palms, and flowers from the Cape of Good Hope.

In another portion were specimens of the Egyptian paper plant, from which the ancient papyrus was made, while among the American fruits were Oregon pears weighing nearly four pounds apiece, a potato fifteen inches long weighing five pounds, and a strawberry

Ancient

Exhibits

PERIOD VII eleven inches in circumference. The United States can certainly
 THE NEW claim supremacy as regards the size of its fruits.
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Woman's Building

The Wo-
 man's
 Exhibit

The success of the Columbian Exposition was due in a large degree to Mrs. Potter Palmer, President of the Board of Lady Managers. The dimensions of the Woman's Building were 199 by 388 feet. It was the design of Miss Sophia G. Hayden, of Boston, and was of the Italian Renaissance style. The caryatides were modelled by Miss Yandel, of Louisville, and the groups of figures on the roof-line were the work of Miss Rideout, of San Francisco. Many of the painted decorations were important, showing the artistic skill of Mrs. MacMonnies and Miss Cassatt. The eastern parlor was furnished and decorated by the women of Cincinnati, and other smaller rooms by the women of California, Kentucky, and Connecticut. The library contained the literary works of the women of all countries, and the ceiling was painted by Mrs. Dora Wheeler Keith.

Many important and interesting gatherings of women were held in the assembly-room, where instructive discussions took place, and addresses of marked excellence were given by the leading women of the country.

Among the articles exhibited as the work of the gentler sex were :

A
 Remark-
 able
 Display

A portable weaving-machine and other inventions; relief work done by women for wrecked sailors, the exhibit of the Blue Anchor Society of New York; exhibit of the Cincinnati Pottery Club; marble fountain and bust of Lucy Stone by Anne Whitney; statue of the dragon that surmounted the State House in which the Continental Congress held sessions in 1777; wax figures showing the different styles of dress since A.D. 1400; feather opera cloak made by women in South Dakota; buffalo skins tanned by squaws; decorative work from the Associated Artists of New York; gold and steel embroidered work done in Denmark in 1794; a shawl made by a woman one hundred years old; three pieces of marble statuary made by Vinnie Ream Hoxie; statuette by Edmonia Lewis, the colored sculptress; painted tapestries; crayon of Napoleon from life; exhibit of training-school for women in New York and Philadelphia; North American Indian exhibit; the Keppel collection of engravings, etchings, etc., by famous artists from 1535 to 1835; several paintings by Queen Victoria and other members of the royal family;

specimens showing the handiwork of Queen Victoria; Irish industries in charge of the Countess of Aberdeen; women's industries from New South Wales; decorative work by Countess Di Braza, Italy; articles made by the ladies of the Japanese court; work done by the Grand Duchess and other ladies of rank in Russia; tapes-tries, laces, and art and literary exhibit by the women of Sweden; exhibit from Siam; bas relief in marble by Sarah Bernhardt; statue

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HORTICULTURAL BUILDING

of Psyche by Mme. Bertaux; statue of Leif Erickson by Anne Whitney; statue of Miriam by Vinnie Ream Hoxie; exhibit of book covers and illustration from the New York Bureau of Applied Design.

The loan collection included the priceless laces of Queen Margharetta of Italy, which, until this exhibition, had never before left that country. Not the least interesting display was that of the relics of Queen Isabella, the “true and tried” friend of Columbus.

Remark-
able
Relics

Man-of-War “ Illinois ”

A unique exhibit was a model of the man-of-war *Illinois*. Its length all over was 358 feet, length of water-line 348 feet, breadth 69 feet, mean draught 24 feet, and cost \$100,000.

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This vessel formed a part of the Navy Department exhibit, and was the idea of Commodore R. W. Meade, U. S. N. Seen at the foot of Fifty-ninth Street in Lake Michigan, it seemed to be floating gracefully in the water, while it was really resting upon a solid foundation of piling and timbers.

The "Ill-
inois"

Because of the shallow water, none of the great men-of-war, like the *Indiana*, *Massachusetts*, and *Oregon*, could be harbored at the Fair. The model stationary ship, therefore, was made of brick, iron, and wood, but the *Oregon* itself could not have shown more perfectly the discipline, manner of living of officers and men, and the display of the gun, torpedo, boat, and other drills. The *Illinois* had the same number of guns as the original from which she was copied, and most of them were genuine, the very largest being too heavy to be transferred to the model.

On the gun-deck were the six-inch naval guns, rapid-firing machine guns, and projectiles. On the spar-deck were the conning-tower, wheel, rudder indicators, speed indicators, and batteries of rapid-firing guns. On the main deck were models of United States warships, ship dispensary and hospital; while in the naval museum were displayed projectiles of all sorts; small guns built at Annapolis by cadets; portraits of admirals; the Naval Hydrographic Department; surveying instruments; officers' quarters; fish torpedoes, projectile torpedoes, etc.

Foreign Buildings

A striking feature of the Exposition was the great interest shown by almost all the foreign nations. Some of them had buildings of their own, and in the aggregate millions of dollars were appropriated by those countries in contributing to the success of the grand enterprise.

The
Foreign
Build-
ings

The Victoria House was a typical "half-timber" structure of the time of Henry VIII. Although terra-cotta was extensively used in the lower story, with red-brick facing and mullioned windows, the building was a fine example of the comfortable old-fashioned English manor house.

The interesting exhibits included a large scale map showing the discoveries made by Englishmen in America; educational displays; post-office exhibits, contrasting the old and the new systems, and a Seychelles cocoanut-plant. This plant is a rare curiosity. "Chi-

nese" Gordon, who was a learned and deeply religious man, considered it to be the genuine "forbidden fruit of Eden."

The Canadian Building was two stories in height, with three entrances, and, including the veranda, covered an area of about 6,000 square feet. It had one of the best locations in the park, and, in order to show the variety of woods indigenous to Canada, the interior walls, ceilings, and floors of the pavilion were finished with them, all being highly polished and very beautiful. The building was devoted mainly to the comfort of visitors from Canada, and every possible convenience was supplied to them.

Adjoining this building was the Australia House, erected by New South Wales, whose people manifested a deep interest in the Exposition. The building was neat and artistic, capitally arranged, and contained the eight offices of the commission.

The Spanish Building was a three-fourths production of a section of the Silk Exchange at Valencia, Spain, whose erection was begun a short time before Columbus sailed on his first voyage. In the tower all defaulting and bankrupt merchants were imprisoned. In the building were displayed many relics of Columbus, among them being several of his letters, a sword once owned by Queen Isabella, one that had been used by Cortez in his conquest of Mexico, ancient artillery, with small, odd-looking cannon, etc.

The German Building was an imposing structure. In its belfry was a chime of three bells made of cast steel at Bochum on the Rhine, and whose final destination was the "Church of Mercy," erected at Berlin in memory of the late Empress Augusta. Within the building were groups of statuary, panels illustrating the birth and crucifixion of Christ, Schuler's statue of St. John, a library of rare German works, antique German furniture, famous paintings, mammoth clocks, old manuscripts, and valuable musical works.

Haiti was modestly represented by a building in the southern colonial style. On the front portico the coat-of-arms of the Republic was painted, with the motto, and below the words, "Republique Haitienne, 1492, 1892, 1804." The first date referred to the discovery of America, the second to the four hundredth anniversary, and the last is the date of Haitian independence. In this building was shown the beautiful statue "Reverie," the work of Laforestrie, a native sculptor, which took the second prize at the Paris Salon. Other curiosities were an anchor from one of the ships of Columbus,

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TO

Canadi-

an

Exhibits

Haitian

Exhibit

PERIOD VII relics of the original inhabitants of the island, the bust and relics of
 THE NEW Toussaint l'Ouverture, paintings, etc.

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The Government of Siam erected a royal pavilion, whose design was furnished by a native architect. It was a small structure, only 26 feet square, with a front elevation of 32 feet. It was made of teakwood, elegantly carved and gilded, while the exhibits included



WOMEN'S BUILDING

fine specimens of gems, rosins, dyes, silks, cottons, grains, and tobacco.

East
 India
 Exhibit

The East India Building was not erected by the Government, though it gave some unofficial aid to the enterprise. Many articles were shown, among them being an Indian temple or shrine, figures of Buddha, stories of Hindoo mythology, illustrated in wood and stone, and on brass and silk, copies of famous monuments, tusks of ivory carved into lace patterns, while the entire building was decorated in the striking colors of the Orient.

The Colombia Building occupied a space of 45 by 45 feet, with conservatories on each side filled with lovely tropical plants. It

was two stories in height, the first occupied by an exceptionally interesting collection of antiquities taken from prehistoric graves in Colombia, among them being water-bottles, human images, helmets, trumpets, breast-plates, bangles, necklaces, anklets, and other articles all made of pure gold. There were also many mummies and specimens of ancient pottery. These and many other interesting exhibits were presented after the close of the Exposition to the Queen Regent of Spain as an expression of gratitude for her services as arbitrator in the disputed boundary between Colombia and Venezuela.

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The Swedish Building was built of brick and timber brought from Sweden. The interior gave a view of the capital, with exhibits of Swedish sports, ships, the famous Swedish iron ores, and the manufactured products of iron, china goods, glass products, and gold and silver work.

Swedish

Exhibit

Venezuela, despite the many troubles through which she had recently passed, erected a building that was a strong evidence of the pluck and energy of her people. The single-story building was constructed of white marble in the Græco-Roman style of architecture. On the left of the three fine towers ornamenting the façade was a life-size statue of Columbus, and on the right one of Bolivar, the Washington of the country. There, too, were relics of great historical value, many of which were prehistoric. The flag carried by Pizarro during his conquest of Peru was shown.

The Turkish Building was a reproduction of a fountain erected in Constantinople two centuries ago by Selim the Great. The exterior walls were adorned by exquisite carvings in a species of hardwood of great beauty. In addition, there were alternate panels of inlaid wood and mother-of-pearl work, with an occasional text in Arabic characters taken from the Koran. The effect of the work when first viewed was somewhat bewildering because of its dazzling brightness.

The exhibit of Turkey could not fail to be attractive with its wealth of festooned hangings of rich fabrics, the display of silks, brilliant gems, and costly jewelry, gums, gold and silver wares, soft fabrics, daggers, and Oriental wares.

The Brazilian Building had its ground plan in the form of a Greek cross, the dimensions on the outside being 148 by 148 feet, the upper story surmounted by a central dome made of steel, and the style of architecture French Renaissance. In the bas-reliefs of the façades and those on the stylobate of the dome the Indian figures were alle

Brazilian

Exhibit

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TO
—Guate-
malan
Exhibit

gorical. The building was not only beautiful but admirably constructed at a cost of \$90,000.

The Guatemala Building was square in shape, with 111 feet on each side, its style of architecture being original and nothing classical in its character. The chief exhibit of Guatemala was its coffee, while the space around the building was turned into a large garden, in which grew coffee, bananas, and the tropical plants peculiar to that country.

The Costa Rica Building was 103 feet long by 60 feet wide, and of the Doric style. A beautiful exhibit was made of tropical birds and plants. Norway erected a structure after the model of the old "Stavkirke," a style dating back to the twelfth century. It was put together in Norway of native pine, taken apart, and sent to this country, where Norwegian workmen put it together.

The Ceylon Court was an antique Buddhist temple, displaying the Dravidian style, as found among the ancient ruins of that island. The elegant Cinghalese woods used in the construction were first fitted in Ceylon and then sent to this country, where the building was reconstructed. The court was 145 feet long, with a central hall 50 feet wide. The decorations were so intricate and elaborate that one might spend hours in their study without discovering all their astonishing beauty.

The French Government Building consisted of two pavilions, united by a semicircular colonnade, at the centre of which was a beautiful fountain decorated with statuary brought from France. In the smaller pavilion was the large room for the city of Paris. There the leading merchants of the city allowed the public to view their choicest wares. The walls were hung with the finest Gobelin tapestry, and the room adjoining contained only works of art and valuable bric-a-brac.

Lafay-
ette
Relics

In the larger pavilion were shown some of the finest paintings of the French nation. In the "De Lafayette Room" were the numerous interesting mementos and historical relics connected with Lafayette's career in this country. No other foreigner can ever hold so warm a place in the memory of Americans as this friend of Washington and of our country. The building was only one story in height, but it was 250 feet long by 175 feet wide. The most instructive exhibit was the models and plans of schools, prisons, hospitals, and the sewerage systems of Paris.

Midway Plaisance

A peculiar and unique interest attached to a narrow strip of land, nearly a mile in length, extending westward from the north end of Jackson Park, and known as the Midway Plaisance. It formed a part of the Chicago park system connecting Jackson and Washington parks. It was devoted to the amusement features of the Fair, and attracted great interest among the millions of visitors.

Those who strolled through the curious section will recall its leading exhibits, among which the chief were :

The Hungarian Orpheum, consisting of a café and concert pavilion. The theatre was in the lower part, and concerts were given every half-hour by Hungarian artists from Budapest, the capital of Hungary. The Slav, Saxon, Vend, Croat, and other tribes appeared in their native costumes, and gave the songs and picturesque dances of their country. Those desiring refreshments were waited upon by seventy-five Hungarian maidens, who, if they could not speak English well, knew enough of the language to make sure they obtained the full price for whatever was served to their customers.

The Lapland Village was so true to life that the visitor could well fancy himself in that strange northern country, with its Arctic climate and quaint customs. There were two dozen reindeer, sledges, and thirty-seven Laplanders, twelve of whom were women and six children.

The Dahomey Village consisted of three houses, one of which was a museum, and of a group of huts for the men and another for the women. Besides these, there were several sheds used for cooking. The front was constructed of wood brought from Dahomey. On the platforms on each side of the gates were seated two sentinel warriors, just as they appear when doing similar duty at home. There were sixty men and forty women, who gave exhibitions of their dances, chants, and war-cries, and were eager to sell the many products of their mechanical skill.

The Captive Balloon was a reproduction of the balloon used at the Paris Exposition in 1889. The car accommodated from sixteen to twenty people, who were taken up to a height of 1,493 feet, from which a view of surpassing magnificance was obtained.

Immediately adjoining was the Chinese Village, where could be

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A
Unique
Exhibit

The
Captive
Balloon

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TO
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seen a theatre, joss-house, bazaar, restaurant, and tea-garden. The actors were brought direct from China, where they were "stars," and the performances of almost interminable length were precisely such as may be seen at any time in that dilapidated Empire. The same may be said of the other peculiar exhibitions. In the tea-garden were shown specimens of the plant worth \$100 a pound, two or three leaves being sufficient to make a pot of tea. Naturally, too, the display of silks and embroideries was of the richest character.

The
Austrian
Village

The Austrian Village adjoined that of Dahomey, and was a reproduction of a portion of Vienna as it existed nearly two centuries ago. The greater portion of it was a court or plaza, around which were thirty-six buildings, the largest being the city hall. There was also a church where service was held, and in the shops were sold various specimens of Viennese wares. The restaurant would seat 1,000 people, who were waited upon by more than fifty Viennese women. An officer of the Imperial and Royal Bank of Austria established a branch of the bank in "Old Vienna" for the accommodation of the Austrian firms represented at the Fair.

The most terrific exhibit was the Cyclorama of the Volcano of Kilauea, the greatest volcano in the world, the "Inferno of the Pacific" in the island of Hawaii. This crater is two miles broad and three miles long, and is probably the most vivid picture of the general conception of Hades that can be found anywhere on the globe. It was depicted with a vividness and realism so terrible as to test the nerves of the strongest man, and many shrank from it, unable to look upon the appalling scene.

The
Algerian
and
Tunisian
Village

The Algerian and Tunisian Village occupied an area of 165 by 280 feet. Its concert hall seated a thousand persons, besides which it had a Moorish café, Kabyle house, an Arab tent-village, desert tents, etc. The Arabs, Kabyles, and negroes were seen engaged in their daily labors and amusements, while all the surroundings added to the realism of the scene. Fifty native musicians, jugglers, dancers, and other performers were connected with the theatre, and a brisk traffic was carried on in selling the abundant wares from North Africa.

At the French Cider-Press cider was made from a regular French press by French peasants, and served by maidens from Normandy to those who wished it.

No one who visited Chicago in 1893 will forget the Ferris Wheel,

as astounding as it was original in its conception. It was made entirely of steel, was 264 feet high, and consisted of two skeleton wheels 28½ feet apart joined by strong steel shafts and ties. Between the outer rims of the enormous wheel-frame were suspended 36 passenger coaches, delicately but firmly balanced. Each coach was large enough to seat 60 persons, or a total of 2,160 when all were full. The two steel towers supporting the axle on which it revolved were 137 feet high, 5 feet square at the top, and 40 by 50 feet at the bottom. The axle, 33 inches in diameter, 45⅙ feet long, and weighing 56 tons, was the largest steel forging ever made. The time required to make the circuit was twenty minutes. The motors were two engines of 2,000 horse-power, one being held in reserve against accident.

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TO
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The
Ferris
Wheel

Near the northern boundary of the Plaisance was the well-remembered Street in Cairo, an accurate reproduction of a scene in the most ancient land known to history, made still more accurate in detail by the introduction of the native people themselves. There were Egyptians, Arabs, Soudanese, Africans, Kabyles with their camels, donkeys, donkey boys, and every possible accessory—nothing at all seeming to be lacking.

The architecture was such as is found to-day, and has been found for hundreds of years, in the famous city of Cairo. In the marts on the streets were sold the same wares that the visitor to Cairo will find at the present time—precious jewels, damascened scimitars and daggers, beautiful carving, embroideries, shawls, silks, bangles, pipes, and an almost innumerable variety of other articles. There, too, were shown the different Egyptian amusements, native dancing (including the notorious “danse du ventre”), snake-charmers, fortune-tellers, conjurers, jugglers, musical and theatrical performances, wedding processions, and typical street scenes.

The German Village was a graphic and life-like illustration of all the aspects of German life, social, domestic, and industrial. As a tribute to the solid, enduring character of the work done by these people it was said that though the buildings were put up for six months only, they would have held their ground uninjured through the storms of a hundred years.

The
German
Village

The Village was divided into three separate parts. The chief structure was a mediæval stronghold, a feudal castle of the sixteenth century, which was surrounded by a moat fifteen feet wide and

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TO

The
German
Heroes

crossed by two drawbridges. In one part of the castle was the famous collection of arms, coats-of-mail, implements of war and of the chase, owned by Town Councillor Zschille, of Grossenhain, Saxony, and worth \$1,000,000.

In the main hall of the castle was shown an apotheosis of the German Empire, consisting of a group of the greatest heroes of the German nation down to William I., surrounded by a procession of German peasants from all parts of the Empire, doing their homage in their various national costumes.

Outside the castle was the German Village proper, showing the German typical farmhouses, with a fair in progress in the streets. Articles made by these natives were for sale and found ready purchasers.

In the grand concert-garden two military bands, in the splendid uniforms of the German army, gave two concerts each day. Eight thousand listeners could find seats and refreshments while the concerts were under way. Opposite the German village was a picturesque panorama of the Bernese Alps, showing the glistening glaciers, the vast masses of snow, the huge moss-covered rocks, the pastures dotted with Swiss chalets, and herds of goats and sheep contentedly grazing in the valleys.

The Dutch Settlement was a collection of South Sea Island villages. They covered a large space, and contained eighty dwellings, modelled after the fashion of the old Dutch houses of those islands, which include Java, Sumatra, Borneo, Johore, Samoa, Fiji, New Zealand, and the Sandwich group. The settlement contained a Hawaiian and a Javanese theatre. At the latter a number of graceful female dancers charmed the thousands that witnessed their performances, while the Cinghalese, Malays, and other South Sea Islanders gave remarkable exhibitions of their skill in jugglery, dancing, and acrobatics.

Hagen-
beck's
Trained
Animals

Another popular and entertaining feature of the Midway Plaisance was the exhibition of Hagenbeck's trained animals. The large auditorium had a seating capacity of 4,500. Carl Hagenbeck is the most renowned trainer and collector of wild animals in the world. The menageries of all countries draw freely upon him. P. T. Barnum, the great American showman, once told the writer that when he was periodically burned out he would have had to retire from the business for an indefinite time but for Hagenbeck, who

promptly responded to his call by cable for a new supply of wild beasts of every variety.

In Hagenbeck's collection at Chicago were twenty lions, two magnificent Bengal tigers, a polar bear, two black bears, a superb collection of boar-hounds, young panthers, leopards, tigers, monkeys, and parrots. Three exhibitions were given daily, and the training shown by the fiercest of wild beasts would have been deemed incredible had any one not witnessed it. The patience of the trainers, their intelligence and knowledge of the animals, approached perfection.

Who that saw the trained lion on horseback, the educated pigs, and the performances of "Lilly," the dwarf elephant, can ever forget the wonderful exhibition? More striking than all was the close of each performance, when lions, tigers, leopards, bears, and dogs were brought into the ring and went through their various evolutions with as much harmony as if no discord had ever existed between their kind.

Walking down the Midway Plaisance one did not have to go far before he observed an exact copy of the St. Lawrence Gate at Drogheda, built in the year 1200. Passing through the gate, the visitor found himself in a street of the famous Irish village. At the end of the street were the picturesque ruins and banqueting hall of Donegal Castle, and beyond that a tall round tower, with a Celtic market cross carved in the middle.

The houses, both inside and out, were reproductions of the genuine Irish cottages, and the inhabitants were imports from the Emerald Isle. In the first cottage, a man could be seen weaving the "Kells Art Linens," famous the world over. In the same cottage a girl was embroidering linens in polished flax threads, from designs twelve hundred years old.

Peeping into the next cottage, two women were observed working at lace-making, while in the third the wood-carvers were busy. Entering the banqueting hall of Donegal Castle, the ancient seat of the O'Donnells and the princes of Tyrconnell, the eye was confronted by embroidered hangings and coverlets, homespun, spun, woven, and plant-dyed by peasants, trained in the most remote districts in County Donegal; iridescent and colored linens, Irish and "Kells" laces, daintily stitched and embroidered ladies' underwear, among which were replicas of articles made by order of the Princess of Wales for the trousseau of the Duchess of Fife; ecclesiastical vestments, wood

PERIOD VII
THE NEW
UNITED
STATES
1865
TO
—

A Won-
derful
Ex-
hibition

Work of
Irish
Peasants

PERIOD VII
 THE NEW
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 STATES
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 TO
 —

Irish Art
 Work

carvings, hammered iron—the artistic work of the “Village Blacksmith”—outside-knitted hosiery, sprigged and veined handkerchiefs, and house linen, all the work of Irish hands. In addition there was a fine collection of Irish marbles, bog-oak carvings, jewelry, black-thorn sticks, photographs of scenery, etc.

The art works included a statue of Gladstone by Bruce Joy, the Irish sculptor, and also replicas of his Manchester statue of John Bright and his bust of Mary Anderson. The paintings illustrated Irish art from the earliest times to the present.

In the centre of the courtyard was a round tower 120 feet high, a model of the eighty that are still standing in Ireland. The “Wishing Chair” of the Giant’s Causeway stood on real Irish soil, which, after being taken from the mountain-side, was covered with shamrocks before bringing it across the ocean.

The Irish Industrial Village was under the presidency of the Countess of Aberdeen, wife of the Earl of Aberdeen, formerly Viceroy of Ireland. This lady founded the Irish Industries Association, which includes persons of all classes, creeds, and political opinions. Its beneficent purpose was the development of the home industries throughout Ireland, thus affording the men and women a means of living in addition to that of agriculture. The countess has been very successful, and one excellent result of the display at Chicago was that of attracting universal attention to the expertness of the sons and daughters of Ireland in the various trades, and of gaining an extended market for their productions.

The Help from the States

An
 American
 Exhibition

We have thus gained an imperfect idea of the contributions of most of the foreign governments to the World’s Fair at Chicago. The grand enterprise, however, was of necessity purely American, and its chief glory lay in the magnificent support it received from our own country. Had that been withheld, no aid from the “outside world” could have made it successful. Splendid as was the support given by the imperial city of Chicago itself, the Exposition could not have survived the indifference and lukewarmness of the States as a whole, for the Exposition was that of the United States of America, and every patriotic American felt a pride in it, and was eager to contribute his utmost energy towards its success.

And right royal was the response. The most fitting conclusion

of our account is a summary of the support given by the respective States and Territories.

The following table gives the amount contributed by each State and Territory:

		PERIOD VII	
		THE NEW UNITED STATES	
		1865	
		TO	
Alabama...	\$38,000	Nebraska.....	85,000
Arizona.....	30,000	Nevada.....	10,000
Arkansas.....	55,000	New Hampshire	25,000
California	550,000	New Jersey.....	130,000
Colorado.....	167,000	New Mexico.....	35,000
Connecticut.....	75,000	New York.....	600,000
Delaware.....	20,000	North Carolina....	45,000
Florida	50,000	North Dakota.....	70,000
Georgia.....	100,000	Ohio	200,000
Idaho.....	100,000	Oklahoma.....	17,500
Illinois.....	800,000	Oregon	60,000
Indiana	135,000	Pennsylvania	360,000
Iowa	130,000	Rhode Island.....	57,500
Kansas	165,000	South Carolina	50,000
Kentucky	175,000	South Dakota.....	85,000
Louisiana	36,000	Tennessee.....	25,000
Maine	57,000	Texas.....	40,000
Maryland	60,000	Utah	50,600
Massachusetts	175,000	Vermont	39,750
Michigan.....	275,000	Virginia.....	75,000
Minnesota.....	150,000	Washington.....	100,000
Mississippi.....	25,000	West Virginia.....	40,000
Missouri	150,000	Wisconsin.....	212,000
Montana	100,000	Wyoming	30,000
		Total	\$6,060,350

Out of the forty-four States, all except Alabama, Georgia, Mississippi, Nevada, North Carolina, Oregon, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Wyoming and four of the Territories erected tasteful structures upon the grounds in which to display their historic treasures and to receive their citizens and guests. These buildings were put up in the northern portion of Jackson Park, and were creditable in every respect to the various States.

The California Midwinter Fair, an echo of the Columbian Exposition, was opened on January 27, 1894. New Year's Day was originally set, but many of the exhibits had not arrived, and the formal opening was deferred to the date named. The gates, however, were thrown open on the first, and thousands of visitors were present. The beautiful monumental "Prayer-Book Cross," the gift of the late G. W. Childs, was dedicated. This cross, which stands on a knoll near the main buildings, commemorates the landing of the great

The
Mid-
winter
Fair

PERIOD VII

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STATES
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English navigator, Sir Francis Drake, in 1580, from his ship *The Golden Hinde*, at what has since been known as "Drake's Bay," and the preaching there by Drake's chaplain, Francis Fletcher, of the first sermon in English on the Pacific Coast. The monument is 57 feet high and is in the form of a Celtic cross, with the arms 15 feet in height and 23 feet across.

The
Principal
Build-
ings

Ground was first broken for the fair in San Francisco on August 24, 1893. Its cost was nearly \$5,000,000, and its principal buildings were: Manufactures and Liberal Arts; Mechanic Arts; Horticultural and Agricultural; Fine Arts; Administration Building and Festival Hall. One of the most interesting features was the reproduction of a pioneer mining-camp, with all its accessories, including a number of the identical cabins in which some of the "Bonanza kings" of California's later days began their lives of privation and toil in the diggings. There was also an exact reproduction of the famous fort of Captain Sutter, as it was when visited by Frémont the explorer in 1846, before any one suspected the prodigious deposits of gold that lay hardly below the surface of the surrounding country. Hundreds of relics of the days of the "Argonauts" were exhibited and viewed with rapt attention by the multitudes of visitors.

The buildings were colored in Oriental fashion, and with their surroundings of orange-trees, magnolias, and palms, and the deep blue of the California sky, they formed a picture of semi-tropical luxuriance and splendor. The interest in the fair, which was moderate at first, owing to its following on the heels of the Columbian Exposition, steadily grew, as its numerous beauties became better known, and its millions of visitors represented every part of the world.

The
Atlanta
Expo-
sition

On the 18th of September, 1895, President Cleveland, at his summer home on the shore of Buzzard's Bay, Mass., pressed the electric button which set in motion the machinery of the Cotton States Exposition at Atlanta, Ga., a thousand miles distant. This exposition was one of the most remarkable and creditable in the whole history of the South. The feeling was strong in that part of our country that it had not been fitly represented at the Columbian Exposition, and this was an attempt to make up for that deficiency, if such it could be considered.

Undertaken during a period of extreme financial depression,

\$500,000 was quickly subscribed in Atlanta, while Congress recognized the exposition as national, and appropriated \$200,000 for a government exhibit. The site was nearly 200,000 acres in extent, and was in Piedmont Park, where were still to be seen the remains of Sherman's rifle-pits, during the furious fighting round the town more than thirty years before. The view was beautiful, and an artificial lake gave water frontage to the principal buildings and conveyance by gondolas and electric launches to and from different points of the grounds. The buildings and grounds represented an outlay of more than \$2,000,000, and the largest electrically lighted fountain in the world threw water into the air at the rate of 15,000 gallons a minute.

Charles A. Collier was president and director-general of the exposition; Walter G. Cooper, chief of the department of publicity and promotion, and Grant Wilkins, chief of construction and landscape engineer. It was decided to keep the exposition open until the last day of the year, closing it on Sundays. The first of the opening exercises was a military and civic parade, participated in by United States regulars, volunteer companies from different points in the South, 5,000 Grand Army men, and many distinguished visitors.

Bishop Nelson made the opening prayer, followed by an address by President Collier, another by Mrs. Joseph Thompson, for the Woman's Board, one by Booker T. Washington, an address of welcome to the city by Mayor King, and to the State by Judge George Brown. These were followed by an exposition ode by Frank L. Stanton, an oration by Judge Emory Spear, and a benediction by Bishop Becker.

While all these were in excellent taste, breathing the true spirit of Southern hospitality and national patriotism, the speech of Booker T. Washington was in many respects the most striking of all. This man is a negro born in slavery. He was educated at Hampton, Va., and, developing marked ability, he established the Tuskegee (Ala.) Normal and Industrial Institute for colored youth. The funds were mainly obtained from New York and New England, and the institution has been carried to a wonderful degree of efficiency and success. Mr. Washington's presence on a distinctly Southern platform among such distinguished company was an event that, ten years before, no one would have believed among the possibilities.

His audience was prepared to be indulgent and sympathetic, for

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Officers

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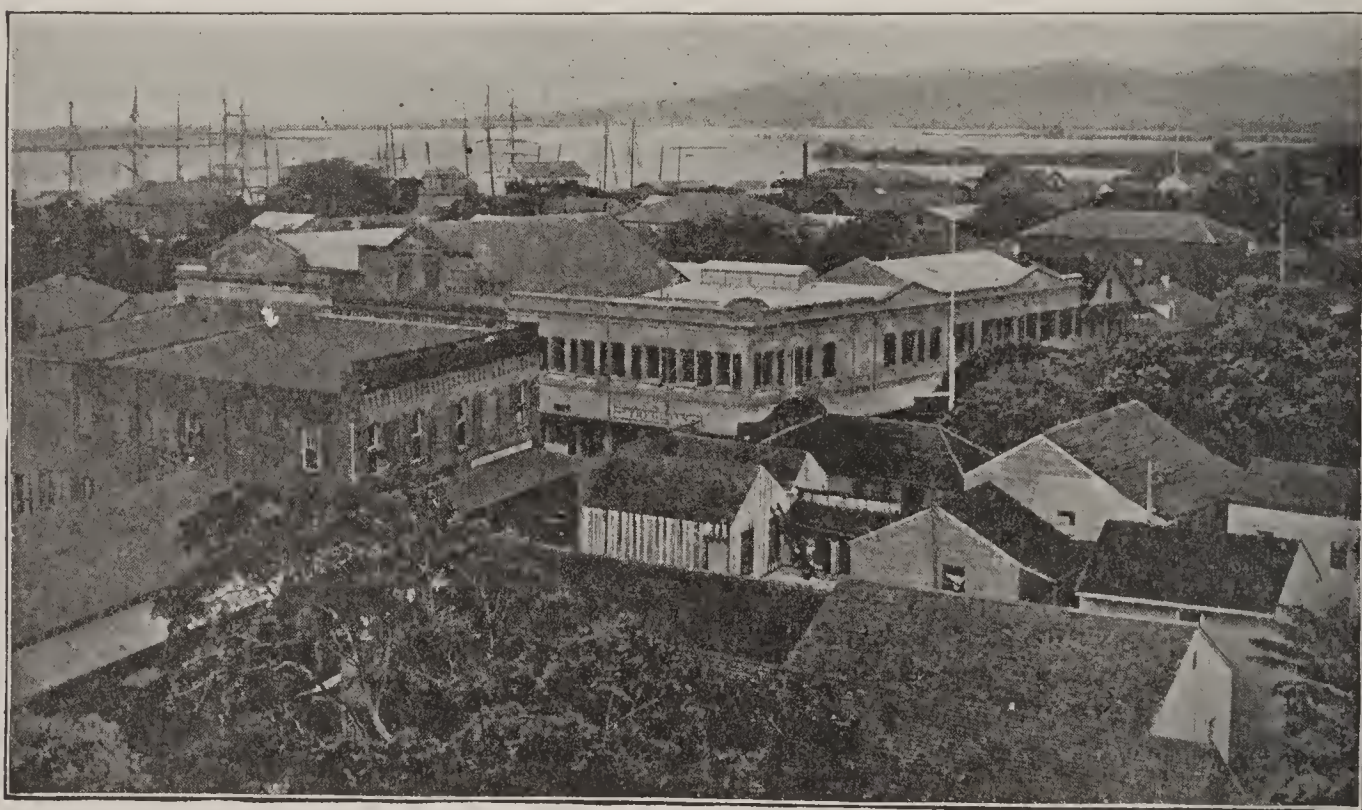
Address

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UNITED
STATES
1865
TO
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comparatively little was expected from him; but very quickly all became interested. Then they began to applaud, and his wise and eloquent sentences brought forth round after round of delighted applause. In that brief address, the gifted man secured acknowledgment as the foremost colored educational leader in the South.

The buildings were about thirty in number, spacious, substantial, artistic, and well adapted to the purposes to which they were devoted. Every Southern State was appropriately represented, while exhibits were made by five Northern States, which, with a number of Central and South American republics, had buildings on the grounds. The



HONOLULU FROM THE BELL TOWER, H. I.

A Great
Object-
Lesson

exposition achieved the full measure of success, and exerted a marked and beneficial influence upon the industrial and commercial interests of the South, and, in a higher sense, upon the country at large. It was fraternal in spirit, and awoke a responsive echo to the farthest northern and western bounds of our country; it showed as never before the amazing capabilities of the South; in truth, it was a revelation to the South itself, few of whose people suspected the marvellous resources of that region until this impressive object-lesson was spread before them.

The location of the twelve islands composing Hawaii, lying in the Pacific, to the southwest of California, early attracted the attention of navigators. The field was a promising one for missionaries, who

visited the islands during the first quarter of the century, and did a beneficent work for civilization and Christianity. There is an old saying that the sons of ministers and notably good men are generally the worst sort of people. In Hawaii the sons of the missionaries seized the most valuable portions of the semi-tropical islands, and divided the principal offices among themselves. The royal native family retained rule, but were so shorn of power that their reign was merely nominal.

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TO
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In 1849 Hawaii and the United States made a treaty of commerce and for the extradition of criminals, and a reciprocity treaty



PALM TREES, QUEEN'S HOSPITAL, HONOLULU

was concluded in 1875. This gave a prodigious impulse to the sugar industry, which was virtually in the hands of foreigners. In 1891 Congress further confirmed treaty rights, and the natives saw that the islands had become the ripe plum that was to be picked by foreigners.

David Kalakaua, born in 1836, became king of Hawaii in 1874, his elevation to that office being due to the aid of American and English ships. He had little ability, and preferred the grosser pleasures of life to the good of his subjects. He was soured and resentful at sight of the greed of the foreigners, and encouraged the cry of "Hawaii for the Hawaiians," which the native members of the legislature raised. The people who controlled the king were reac-

King
Kala-
kaua

PERIOD VII

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 UNITED
 STATES
 1865
 TO

tionists, but in 1887 the progressists, by a vigorous movement, compelled the king to sign a new constitution, which left him hardly a shred of authority. The right of suffrage was given to the white residents, and closer relations were established with the United States, to whom Pearl Harbor, in Oahu, was ceded, our country thus securing one of the best naval stations in the Pacific.

In 1891 Kalakaua died in San Francisco, while engaged in negotiating a treaty of reciprocity with the United States. His sister Liliuokalani, two years younger, thereupon became queen. She is



THE KING'S RESIDENCE AT WAIKIKI, HONOLULU

Liliu-
 okalani

a coarse, revengeful woman, and a striking illustration of the absurdity of committing the destinies of a nation to any man or woman solely because of being "born to the purple." She shared the resentment of her people, and found the position of a monarch only in name intolerable. Like an Indian chief plotting for revenge, she bided her time, which came, as she believed, in January, 1893, when there was an angry split in the leading party. She called the legislature together and proposed a new constitution, which took the right of voting from the whites, and gave back to the crown the many privileges taken from it. Her course was so radical that her friends were fearful of the consequences, and induced her to modify her scheme, which she did by declaring that all changes in the funda-

mental law would be made in accordance with the method provided in the old constitution.

This did not lessen the alarm of the white residents in the island, who had little faith in her promises, which she would not hesitate to break if self-interest could be aided thereby. Many believed that a massacre was among the probabilities. The United States man-of-war *Boston* was lying in the harbor of Honolulu, and the American residents appealed to her commander for protection. He promptly responded—indeed, so promptly that he precipitated the very trouble that was feared, and gave cause for many of the com-

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UNITED
STATES
1865
TO



THE KING'S NEW PALACE, HONOLULU

plaints made by the royal party. American troops were landed, the Queen's minister of foreign affairs and the governor of the island vigorously protesting, with the assurance that not the slightest political change would be made except in accord with the spirit and letter of the old constitution. Nevertheless, the citizens and residents of the islands organized, declared the monarchy at an end, and a provisional government was established until terms of union with the United States should be agreed upon.

This was decisive work, but it was followed by that which was still more so. On the 1st of February, 1894, the government formally placed itself under the protectorate of the United States, and the Stars and Stripes were hoisted over the government building by

A Pro-
visional
Govern-
ment Es-
tablished

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THE NEW
UNITED
STATES
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Toward
Annex-
ation

a force of marines. The American minister Stevens was delighted over the facile manner in which he believed Hawaii was to become a part of the United States, where the sentiment was strongly in favor of its annexation.

President Harrison authorized the presence on the island of such force as might be needed to protect the lives and property of the Americans there, but he disavowed the protectorate. Matters, however, remained unchanged, while the sentiment in favor of annexing the island rapidly grew in the United States. It did not take long to frame a treaty acceptable to President Harrison. By its terms, the government of Hawaii remained as it was, the supreme power being vested in a commissioner of the United States, who could veto any of the acts of the local government. The public debt was to be assumed by the United States, which country was to pension Liliuokalani at the rate of \$20,000 a year and pay her daughter \$150,000. President Harrison recommended the ratification of the treaty, and expressed the fear that delay upon our part would result in some other power securing the islands.

Cleve-
land's
Change
of Policy

Thus matters stood on the 4th of March, 1893, when President Cleveland came into office. His sentiments were exactly the reverse of those of his predecessor. He did not believe that there would have been any revolution in Hawaii except for the landing of the marines from the *Boston*, and he would have been glad to replace the deposed queen upon the throne of her country. He withdrew the treaty from the Senate, and sent James H. Blount, of Georgia, as a special commissioner to Hawaii, with full authority to make investigation of its relations with our Government. Well aware of the President's sentiments, Commissioner Blount, on the 1st of April, ordered the American flag hauled down, and formally terminated the protectorate. In the following month, Minister Stevens was recalled and succeeded by Mr. Blount as minister plenipotentiary.

But brief as was the existence of the protectorate, it gave the provisional government a good chance to establish its strength. Energy, tact, and wisdom were displayed. A force of more than a thousand men were armed and drilled, malcontents overawed, treasonable utterances suppressed, while the old alien and sedition laws of our country were improved by an enactment of a fine of \$100 and an imprisonment for thirty days upon any one speaking against the provisional government.

Convinced that the queen should be restored, President Cleveland sent Albert S. Willis thither for the purpose of taking such steps as he could looking to such restoration. The movement must have succeeded, but for the brutal stubbornness of Liliuokalani herself. She was determined to have the lives of the leaders who had conspired against her, and to banish their families. This was more than could be conceded, and at the same time the Dole government curtly refused to comply with Minister Willis's request to relinquish its authority to the queen.

PERIOD VII
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UNITED
STATES
1865
TO

Stub-
bornness
of Liliuo-
kalani

President Cleveland now found himself in front of an insurmountable wall, for he could not use force without the sanction of Congress, which from the first was hotly opposed to his course in Hawaiian affairs. Meanwhile, the provisional government proved its right to live by summarily suppressing a rebellion, and, after imposing severe penalties upon the rebels, relaxed its harshness and showed mercy towards them. The queen, having been arrested, solemnly renounced for herself and heirs all claim to the throne, urging her subjects to do the same, and declared her allegiance to the republic.

Minister Willis was compelled to say that the provisional government and its supporters included the best people on the island, that the government is liberal, secure, and wisely administered; and that the Americans had been ignored to the preferment of other nationalities. Thus the matter stands for the present, with every reason to believe that at no distant day this group of Pacific islands will be added to the family composing the great American Republic.

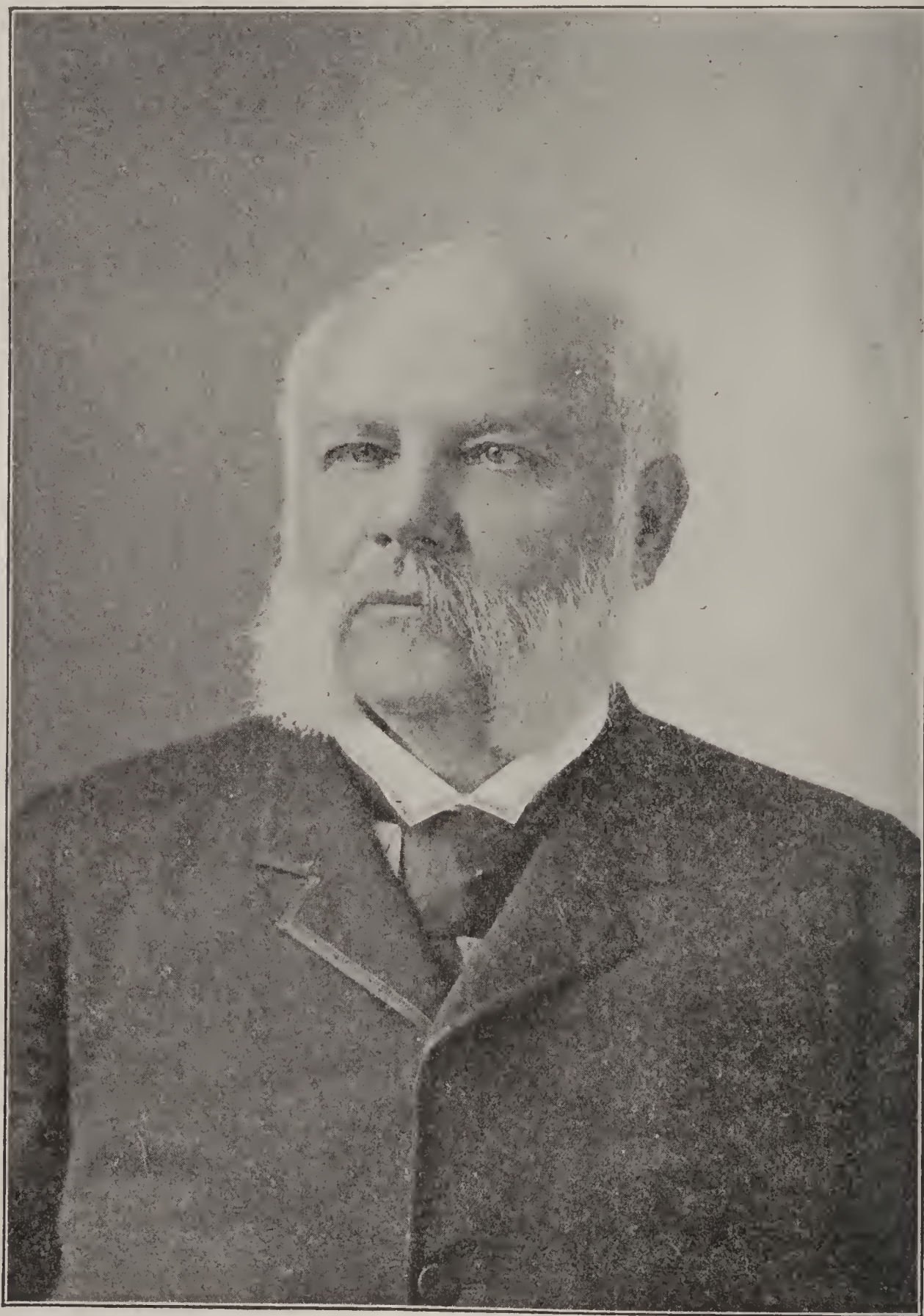
On the 29th of September, 1895, Lieutenant-General John M. Schofield, having reached the age of sixty-four years, was retired from his command of the United States army. In accordance with the rule, he retained his rank and three-fourths of his pay. He is a native of Chautauqua County, N. Y., and having been appointed a cadet to West Point, from Illinois, was graduated in 1853, in the same class with Sheridan, MacPherson, and the Confederate General John B. Hood. He served in the First Regiment of artillery, and was assistant professor at West Point in 1855-60. He was commissioned major of the First Missouri Volunteers at the outbreak of the war, and served as chief of staff for General Lyon, who was killed at the battle of Wilson's Creek. His promotion was rapid. He was appointed brigadier-general of Missouri militia, acting as such

Lieuten-
ant-
General
Schofield

PERIOD VII until November, 1862, when he became major-general of volunteers,
THE NEW and commanded the Department of Missouri in 1863-4.

UNITED
STATES
1865
TO

The services of General Schofield have already been noted down



LIEUT.-GEN. JOHN M. SCHOFIELD

to the surrender of General Johnston, April 26, 1865, at which he was present. In June following he was sent to Europe on a special



MAP OF HAWAII

SCALES.

Statute Miles, 69.16 = 1 Degree.

Kilometres, 111.307 = 1 Degree.

Rand, McNally & Co.'s New Business Atlas Map of Hawaii.
Copyright, 1898, by Rand, McNally & Co.

WESTERN ISLANDS OF HAWAII ON SAME SCALE AS MAIN MAP.

mission by the State Department, and remained abroad for a year. He was made commander of the Army of the Potomac, and had charge of the First Military District, 1867-68; was Secretary of War, 1868-69, when he was made major-general and assigned to the Department of Missouri. He commanded the Division of the Pacific, 1870-76, and again in 1882-83; President Grant, who held his scholarly attainments in high esteem, appointed him superintendent of the Military Academy, 1876-81. He commanded the Division of Missouri, 1883-86, and in the latter year was placed in charge of the Division of the Atlantic and the Department of the East. Upon the death of General Sheridan in 1888, Schofield succeeded him in command of the army, his headquarters being in Washington. By special act of Congress the rank of lieutenant-general was revived and conferred upon Schofield in February, 1895.

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UNITED
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1865
TO
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Major-General Nelson A. Miles succeeded to the place of General Schofield. He was born at Wachusett, Mass., August 8, 1839. General Miles seems to be an illustration of the truth that generals, like poets, are born, not made. He had never seen the inside of the famous Military Academy at West Point, and was engaged in business when the war broke out. He joined the Twenty-Second Massachusetts volunteers as lieutenant. He had always felt an interest in military matters, and was possessed of excellent judgment and great personal bravery. He soon attracted attention in the Army of the Potomac, and was in every battle in which the army took part, with a single exception, down to the surrender at Appomattox. At Spottsylvania he captured Lieutenant-General Bushrod Johnson and his whole division, and at Five Forks he prevented the defeat of our army by rescuing Warren's Fifth Corps and Sheridan's cavalry.

Promotion of
General
Miles

Miles received the rapid promotion he had so well earned. Within a year he became lieutenant-colonel of the Sixty-First New York infantry, and in a few weeks was appointed colonel of the same regiment. In 1864, he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and at the beginning of the following year he became major-general of volunteers. Upon being mustered out of the volunteer service he was given command of the Fourth United States Infantry, where he remained for three years, when he was transferred to the Fifth Infantry. His services as an Indian fighter have been of the most brilliant kind. He commanded the Indian Territory expedition of 1873, drove Sitting Bull into Canada, captured Chief Joseph,

Services of Gen.
Miles

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TO

and, in 1878, took prisoners the troublesome band of Bannocks in Yellowstone Park. He succeeded in bringing in Sitting Bull, thereby doing an inestimable service to Montana and the Dakotas.



GENERAL MILES

As we have learned, he captured Geronimo in 1886, and displayed admirable tact and skill in subduing without serious fighting the formidable Indian uprising of 1890-91.

General Miles was commissioned brevet-brigadier-general, March 2, 1867; brigadier-general, December, 1880, and major-general in 1890. He commande the Department of Missouri until 1894, when upon the retirement of Major-General O. O. Howard he succeeded him, in command of the Department of the East. General Miles commanded the troops called out in 1894 to suppress the rioting in Chicago.

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UNITED
STATES
1865
TO
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CHAPTER LXXXIX

CLEVELAND'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION, 1893-97 (CONTINUED)

[*Authorities* : The following chapter is devoted to a history of strikes in the United States, including their causes and results. It is a history calculated to arouse sympathy for the workingmen of our country and anxiety for the stability of our Government. Yet to the thinker whose mind is illumined by the lessons of history, and who believes in the pre-eminence of brains in a few over the brawn of many, there is no real occasion for alarm.

Other things being equal, acquired wealth is a pretty reliable measure of men. He who by intelligence, enterprise, and persistence has won wealth—has become a capitalist and employer of many—is more than a match for his employees in any struggle other than physical. In such contests, when the element of brute force is eliminated, the workingman has no chance of success.

Besides, the workingmen are very apt to engage as their leader the noisy, ignorant, blatant demagogue, who in any game of diplomacy can be outwitted by a man of affairs. The only philosophical way to adjust disputes between capital and labor is to permit the laws of supply and demand to be operative.

Authorities for this chapter are official reports and contemporary publications.]



HERE is no end to the plans which have been formulated for the benefit of workingmen. Many of these were wise, and gave hope that the disputes between capital and labor would disappear and everything would go forward in quiet and harmony, but the solution of the most perplexing of all social problems seems to be as far off as ever.

Strikes continue, with the destruction of property, the paralysis of business, and often with violence and loss of life.

Of late years, despite the formation of laborers into unions, the employers have generally been victorious over the strikers, for the simple reason that men with plenty of money can afford to stay idle

longer than those having to depend upon their daily wages for food for themselves and families.

The great fact that gives capital the advantage is that labor is a drug in the market; there are more workers than there are places for workers; the supply is greater than the demand. The real difficulty, therefore, of this vexing problem is to change the relations of capital and labor, or, in other words, to create a demand for all the men that need employment.

The logical way of settling the quarrels between nations is by arbitration. The old method, when two powerful countries could not agree over some question, was to go to war. Thousands of lives would be lost and innumerable families be plunged into mourning, when, if the two warring peoples had agreed to leave the settlement of the dispute to some nation friendly to both, the decision would have been right, and all bloodshed saved. Several of the colonial wars ended without the slightest gain to either side, and the War of 1812, in which multitudes of lives were lost, millions of dollars' worth of property destroyed, and the capital of our country burned, came to an end without the settlement of the cause of the quarrel. This, of course, cannot be the case when the wrangle is left to arbitrators, and one of the most hopeful signs of the times is the growing favor among nations of that method of saving life and gaining the ends of justice.

It follows that arbitration is the true way of preventing the disastrous wrangles between employers and employees. When there are pleasant relations between the parties, and when each is anxious to maintain those relations, and they meet in that spirit to discuss their differences, they are quite sure to come to an agreement before they separate. If the employer is compelled to lower the wages of his men, he will give his reasons, and the intelligent employees will listen. If the employer has no good reason to give, and his cause is clearly wrong, the men will be sustained not only by their own unions, but by the public, if they strike.

The right to strike is as clear as the right to breathe, but the wrong is committed when the strikers, as is nearly always the case, use violence to prevent others from taking their places. Not only that, but they pillage and destroy property, and some of the desperate persons among them (quite often criminals who are the worst enemies of the strikers) commit atrocious misdeeds. Then follow a

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Rights

of

Strikers

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STATES
1865
TO
—

Rights
of Em-
ployers

call upon the military, a fight with the vicious mob, and such scenes as have already been described in the account of the great railway strike of 1877.

It sometimes happens—as in the Pullman Car difficulties of 1894—that the employers insist that there is no question to arbitrate, and will not listen to the proposal to do so. This is clearly their right, and when the men who have gone out destroy the property of their late employers, all the damage must be paid for by the community which failed to prevent the destruction. If the strikers use violence towards the new men, the officers of the law must give the fullest protection to the new employees. If they are not strong enough, then the militia are called upon. It frequently happens that the militia are in sympathy with the strikers and are therefore useless. In that event, the regular army is in reserve. These men always obey orders, and shoot to kill. No mob receives any mercy at their hands, and against the Federal soldiers no unlawful combination can prevail.

One momentous truth should be borne in mind. A powerful mob may defy the authorities for a time; it may hold an entire city at its mercy. Suppose it gains a hundred thousand friends; suppose these swell to a million, and the revolt thus becomes far more formidable than it has ever been in the history of our country—what peril then threatens our Government?

Hope-
lessness
of any
Revolt

Absolutely none at all, for back of the military and the regular army would rally ten millions of free men, who would grind the rioters to powder. The safety of our country lies in the fact that we are, have always been, and always will be a law-abiding people. We will not permit rioting and disregard of law. It is this stratum which underlies our whole social fabric that is built, not upon sand, but upon solid rock.

One of the reassuring features of the strike of 1894 was the offer of a number of old Confederate leaders to place themselves at the head of their grizzled veterans and crush the rebellion in the bud.

Since the question of strikes is one that is certain to vex the country for years to come, it will be of interest to give in this place a history of the principal ones that have plagued the country during the past century.

The earliest strike of which there is any satisfactory record in this country was that of the boot and shoe makers of Philadelphia in



STRIKE OF THE SAILORS IN NEW YORK, 1803

FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY CHARLES KENDRICK

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UNITED
STATES
1865
TO
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Strike
of the
Sailors

the year 1796. These men “turned out,” as the saying then was, for an increase of wages. They won, and again struck in 1798 and 1799, carrying their point each time.

The first strike in New York of which record has been found is that of the sailors in 1803 for an increase of wages from \$10 to \$14 a month. The Jack Tars paraded around the water-front and compelled seamen from every ship in port that they could reach to join with them in their agitation. They became riotous, and the town guard turned out and repressed their disorder. The leader of this strike was convicted and sent to jail, and the strike was a signal failure. On November 1, 1805, the journeymen bootmakers of Philadelphia again struck, this time for an increase in their pay of from 25 to 75 cents on each pair of boots. The successful precedents set by their fellows some years before did not avail them, however: the strike was an egregious failure. Its organizers were found guilty of “conspiracy to raise wages,” and were fined \$8 and costs each. When the New York shoemakers turned out in 1809, 200 strong, they won their contention, but when the shoemakers in Pittsburg in 1815 followed their example they failed, and were convicted and fined.

As long ago as 1821 the printers struck in Albany against non-union workmen, but there are no data at hand now indicating the exact result of their protest. Next in chronological order came the strike of the spinning girls in the Cocheco Mills in Dover, N. H., in 1827. The carpenters and masons of Boston struck in 1830 for a ten-hour day, and failed. So the protest against non-union workingmen dates at least from 1821, and that for a ten-hour day at least from 1830.

Early
Strikes

In April, 1834, the laborers on the Providence Railroad struck at Mansfield, Mass., and became riotous. The Massachusetts militia was called out to suppress their disorder, and succeeded in so doing. In August, 1835, the operatives of twenty mills in Paterson, N. J., struck for shorter hours of work. This seems to have been a determined struggle, but the strikers lost their points of contention and \$24,000 in wages besides. The ten-hour-day agitation was continued by the coal-handlers of Philadelphia in May, 1835, though without decisive result, while the same year the journeymen shoemakers again struck for shorter hours and more pay, and again carried their point. Next in order came the dam-builders in Maine in July,

1836, with their successful contention for the right to smoke at work; and of the fifteen strikes between that year and 1842, so meagre are the statistics, it is apparent that barely ten were unsuccessful and three without positive advantage to either side.

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The first strike of the ironmakers of Pittsburg of which there seems to be record is that of February 5, 1842. They demanded a fixed wage scale, and lost five months' wages and the strike. In August of the same year the weavers of Philadelphia struck for more wages, and were as disorderly in their way, it seems, as the tailors of Tooley Street. They raised a great deal of row, and their disorders were not quieted until January, 1843, when there was a settlement in the nature of a compromise. The strike of the brick-makers in May, 1843, was attended by rioting and considerable destruction of property, but there was no decided advantage to either party to the contest. In May, 1845, the ironworkers of Pittsburg struck again, this time for \$6 instead of \$5 a ton, and this time they were successful. Philadelphia, being the great manufacturing city of the United States in the earlier part of this century, was the scene of the most strikes, and from 1844 to 1848, inclusive, there were a number of such agitations in that city, the results of which were in the main in accordance with the wishes of the workingmen.

Strike of
Iron-
makers

The first great strike of the weavers of Fall River seems to have been in 1848, when there was a protracted effort to adjust their differences, which was, however, attended with more loss to the strikers than to their bosses, since the former lost \$11,000 and the latter only \$8,000. There was a great strike in the iron industries in Pittsburg, beginning in December, 1849. It lasted well into the new year, and was distinguished by more than usual bloodshed and disturbance. On February 18th the strikers began to riot, and from that time on non-union men were badly beaten whenever the opportunity offered. The wives and daughters of the strikers joined in their riots, and, as was said to be the case at Homestead, were not slow in using sticks and stones on the men who, they conceived, were robbing them of their bread and butter. There were a great many arrests of strikers, and the fines imposed were heavy. They lost everything they contended for, and the manufacturers signalized their victory by reducing the wages of the men from \$6 to \$4.50 a ton. In the ten years from 1850 to 1860 there were a number of strikes of minor importance, nearly all of which are said by the

Violence
of
Strikers

PERIOD VII collectors of the few statistics available to have been "unsuccessful."

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Few
Labor
Disturb-
ances
During
the War

On February 22, 1850, the Massachusetts shoemakers struck in a number of towns in that State, and there was great disorder. The State militia had to be called out to quell the riots, and when the strikers returned to work in April of that year it was estimated that they had lost \$200,000.

The record of labor disturbances seems to have lapsed during the war. In 1868 the Fall River spinners and weavers struck against the January reduction in wages of 18 per cent. In two weeks it was said the men lost \$50,000, but they were partially successful. In the years 1868 and 1869 there were seventeen big strikes, most of which failed, and the next to attract attention is the revolt of the iron-workers of Pittsburg on December 5, 1874, against what they said were unfair wages. By April 15th of the following year the men had gained their point, and an increase of wages was conceded to them.

The record of labor agitation having been brought down now to within a comparatively recent period, and the condition of mechanics and laborers generally in the United States having been undoubtedly greatly improved in that time, this ever-recurring question asserts itself: Is that improvement commensurate with the value of the lives, property, and money lost in the struggle to attain it?

In the years from 1871 to 1875 the union cigarmakers struck 78 times, and from 1873 to 1875 there were strikes all over the country in the cotton and wool and mining trades, mostly unsuccessful. Then came the railway strike of 1877, the most serious up to that time in the history of the country, the particulars of which have been told elsewhere.

The
Strikes
of 1880

In 1880 the Tenth Census report said that 762 strikes occurred that year. In 1886, for by this time statistics on this subject had begun to be collected with considerable accuracy, there were 1,900 strikes and a resulting loss of more than \$2,858,191. in wages. The great Wabash Railroad strike, as a result of which it was believed General Manager Talmage lost his life, being a nervous man and subjected at the time to threats of much brutality, began in 1885. The year 1886 saw the famous Gould strike on the Southwestern Railroad system. The receivers of the Texas and Pacific Railroad discharged a man named Hall, who was a Knight of Labor. In

consequence of this action all the Knights of Labor employed on the Texas and Pacific and Missouri Pacific railway systems struck work on March 1, 1886. The terrific conditions of 1877 were re-created on a larger scale. The strikers absolutely seized the cities of St. Louis, Sedalia, Atchison, Kansas City, Parsons, Fort Worth, Little Rock, and Texarkana, and stopped all trains. There was a special committee of the House of Representatives on labor troubles appointed to consider this subject, and it examined Jay Gould in Washington in April, 1886. Much interest was manifested in Mr. Gould's appearance as a witness before this committee. He bore himself with consummate prudence, and made a strong impression. He testified that General Master Workman Powderly, of the Knights of Labor, had told him on March 28th of that year, when the strike was less than a month old, that that strike was against the rules of the Knights of Labor. There was indeed a general impression in the minds of the public that Powderly condemned the undertaking of this strike by the Knights of Labor from the very beginning, for when he issued his general appeal to Knights of Labor, "wherever found," to help the strikers, "whether right or wrong," and denouncing General Manager Hoxey because he would not treat with the Knights of Labor, the qualifications which he added to his appeal were construed as a confession. The date of his appeal was April 14, 1886. As a result of this strike, the railroad men lost millions of dollars in wages—some put the sum at \$15,000,000—and lost the strike as well. General Manager Hoxey lost his life, dying in New York in consequence of the nervous strain to which he was subjected.

As an illustration of how strikes originate, the St. Louis *Globe-Democrat* said at that time: "The present strike on the South-western system originated, as is well known, in the discharge of a man of the name of Hall at Marshall, Tex. Strange to say, about ten days before this strike was ordered, a general strike was threatened because of a refusal of the company to discharge a man. Martin Irons, Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Knights at Sedalia, notified the superintendent of the railroad system at that place that if a certain master-mechanic was not discharged within forty-eight hours a strike would be ordered on the entire Missouri Pacific system. The strike was averted only by the voluntary resignation of the man who had incurred the wrath of the committee. He

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Great
Losses
by
Strikers

was a good mechanic, well fitted for his place, and a favorite with the officers of the road."

The coal and freight handlers' strike in New York City began in 1886 and was not ended until the next year. Business was paralyzed and many millions of dollars were lost. It was stated that only twenty per cent. of the strikers were on the winning side in 1886. From other sources there is reason to believe that, while the successful strikers of 1886 lost \$2,400,000 in wages, the unsuccessful strikers lost not less than \$13,500,000 in wages. This is the result of labor agitation in a single year.

The Government report for the year 1887 said that between 1796 and 1880 1,491 important strikes had occurred, but from 1881 to 1886 there had been 3,902 strikes, in which 1,323,203 men were involved and millions in wages lost.

Carroll D. Wright reported that for six years ending December 31, 1886, success had followed in 10,407 cases, or 46.59 per cent. of the whole. The causes of strikes as given by him were: For increase of wages, 42.44 per cent.; for reduction of hours, 19.45 per cent.; against reduction of wages, 7.75 per cent.; for increase of wages and reduction of hours, 7.53 per cent.; against increase of hours, 0.62 per cent.; all other causes, 22.17 per cent. While disclaiming absolute accuracy, as every collator and collector of such statistics must, Mr. Wright reported at that time that the loss to strikers during the six years covered by his investigations was \$51,816,165, and loss to employees through lockouts for the same period \$8,132,717, or a total wage loss to employees of \$59,948,882.

The
Reading
Strike

The famous Reading strike, as it is called, began on the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad on December 20, 1887, when 6,000 employees of the railroad company were called away from their work by the Knights of Labor. The reason given for this action was in general the refusal of the railroad company to recognize the Knights of Labor as such. The facts were that a Port Richmond firm employed a few non-union men. Their discharge was insisted upon by the union men; and whereas only 6,000 men went out at first, 30,000 men altogether participated in the Reading strikes of that year, and the workmen lost in consequence \$3,620,000 in wages. The loss of the Reading Railroad Company was put at \$1,000,000, and the loss to consumers of coal in consequence of the increase they were compelled to pay in prices was set down at \$700,000. The places of

most of the men who went out on this strike were filled by the railroad company, which never conceded the point for which the Knights of Labor contended; and as long afterwards as June 9, 1888, several thousands of the misguided strikers were still idle, suffering great privations and bitterly regretting the day they struck. General Master Workman Powderly himself said of this strike and of the overbearing disposition the men had previously shown towards the

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STREET-CAR STRIKE IN NEW YORK, 1889

railroad company: “The men on the Reading Railroad actually controlled the entire management and had everything their own way. They grew restive and allowed incendiary counsels to prevail. It was no uncommon thing for them to stop a train on the down track and talk to an up train in order to settle some little matter.”

Another estimate of the losses incurred by strikes during the six years from 1880 to 1886 on American railroads may be interesting for purposes of comparison. It was made in the *Philadelphia Press*, and declared that in that time there had been on American railroads 1,478 strikes, with an average loss of 38,127 days of labor. The

Esti-

mate of

Strikers'

Losses

PERIOD VII pecuniary loss to employees was \$2,089,494, while that to employers was \$6,267,558.

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The glass-workers struck in Philadelphia, Pittsburg, and other places in 1887, losing \$495,264 in wages. Out of 884 strikes in 1887, 247 were successful, while 115 more were compromised on terms giving some advantage to the workmen.

Suc-
cesses
and
Failures

The workers in the Edgar Thompson Steel Works presented their wage scale to their employers on December 29, 1887. The next day Andrew Carnegie refused to sign the scale. A strike was shortly begun, after a conference in New York productive of no results, and 3,000 men, being without work for four months, lost \$560,000 in wages.

The Lo-
comotive
Brother-
hood

The strike of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers on the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad and its branches began early in 1888. On May 5th of that year the *Tribune* estimated the cost of the strike up to that time at \$3,000,000. The loss of the Brotherhood was then estimated at \$670,034, of which \$410,572 was wages. This sum had been lost by the 1,053 engineers, 1,053 firemen, and 400 switchmen who had gone out. It is said that the losses of the railroad company did not amount to more than one-tenth of the losses of the men. Few of these strikers were re-employed, and in consequence of the assessments levied at the time there were such disturbances in the Brotherhood that a shortage of \$3,000 developed in Division 145. Another estimate of the losses occasioned by this strike was \$5,000,000 to the railroad company and \$1,000,000 to the strikers; conflicts of figures such as these must be supposed to be largely due to the difference in the point of view. A hostility which has since continued between the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers and the Knights of Labor developed itself in the course of this strike, in consequence of the Knights of Labor taking the place of the striking Brotherhood engineers at that time. When the Knights of Labor struck on the Lehigh Valley Railroad in November, 1893, it was feared that the Brotherhood men would retaliate by taking the places of the Knights.

All New Yorkers remember the street-car strike in the metropolis in January, 1889. The conductors and drivers on nearly all the surface lines quit work, and in consequence, on January 29, 1,200 street cars, each earning on an average about \$20 a day for its owners, were taken off. The men on the Third Avenue surface road did not

strike, and after a week of general public discomfort and private suffering their striking brethren were sorry they had not followed the Third Avenue men's example. It was estimated that about 6,000 men went out, asking for more money and shorter hours. When they gave in, in about seven days, they had lost about \$300,000. The strike was officially wound up on February 6, 1889, and the strikers hurried back to get their old places, many of which, however, had been filled in their absence. The total loss occasioned by this strike was estimated at \$1,707,000. The wages lost during the tie-up itself by the strikers were said to foot up \$50,400. Weeks passed, and the suffering among these men increased, and as late as March 9, 3,000 of them were said to be still lacking employment. There were a number of riotous assemblages in the streets, and one striker, by name McGowan, was killed by a shot from Policeman Snyder's pistol.

The long strike of the Feather-Workers' Union in New York city collapsed on March 21, 1889, the strikers failing to gain their point, and renouncing their unions in many cases to secure re-employment. About \$5,000 had been paid out in support of the union.

In June, 1889, the glassblowers of New Jersey struck by order of the Knights of Labor. There was the usual dreary struggle, and on January 23, 1890, there was a settlement said to be agreeable to both sides. At this time, however, seven of the large firms which had employed the strikers were employing non-union men and refused to discharge them.

At half-past seven in the evening of August 8, 1890, the strike of the operatives of the New York Central Railroad Company began with the blockading of trains in its tunnel above the Grand Central Station. It was a question of the recognition of the Knights of Labor. The men put forward as a grievance the fact that the railroad company had for some months been discharging Knights of Labor, not alleging that membership as a complaint, but uniformly finding itself able to dispense with the services of men who were Knights. The Knights still in its service formally asked that their discharged brethren be reinstated, and this request was refused. The railroad company refused to treat with the Knights as such, and Vice-President Webb announced that the company would fight to the end rather than give in. Eight thousand Knights of Labor then went out. There were riots at various points on the road, at

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Street
Car
Strike
in New
York

Strike
on the
N. Y.
Central

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Failure
of the
Strike

DeWitt and at Albany in particular, and a number of people were injured in a conflict between the Pinkertons and the strikers. The entire system of the road was affected, and it was declared that "the entire resources of the Knights were to be drawn on." The Brotherhood men on the Hudson division of the Central also struck on August 10th, although it was claimed for the company that 300 of the men had returned to work on the railroad on August 9th. Vice-President Webb rejected the offers of the State Arbitration Board to intervene, and carried his policy through to a successful issue. On August 12th the strike was practically at an end, the railroad company said, and when on August 25th the Supreme Council of the United Orders of Railroad Employees refused to strike, the Knights were inevitably done for. On September 4th three strikers tried to wreck the Montreal express. The loss to the strikers and to the Knights of Labor was very great and far-reaching, as many of the best men in the employment of the company found it difficult to get work of any kind thereafter. The sympathetic strike on the Delaware and Hudson road had collapsed in thirty-six hours.

Strike
of the
Cloak-
makers
and
Tailors

Earlier in the same year a chronic disaffection of the tailors in the east side of New York city broke out suddenly, on March 30th, in an outrage which excited the indignation of the entire city, when a tailor named Harris Melzer, who did not strike, had a leather belt forced into his groin by strangers who were said to be strikers, and was left helpless and in the most horrible agony in the street. In June, 1890, the cloakmakers struck in New York city, and non-union men were employed in their places. On July 12th more than 1,000 clothing cutters were notified that they need not come back to work unless they would agree to adjure their unions. Joseph Barondess, a young man of great force of character, who displayed good qualities of leadership, took charge of this strike on behalf of the workmen, and settled it with considerable success on July 25th of that year, the Manufacturers' Association having surrendered on most points. On July 24th there had been such threats of bloodshed that Inspector Byrnes was called upon to interfere. On August 7, 1890, 3,000 cloakmakers struck under Barondess for an increase of pay. In June, July, August, and September, 1890, the cigarmakers struck repeatedly in New York city, and generally won their case.

The first of the recent builders' strikes began on June 5, 1890, when the Board of Walking Delegates in New York ordered all work



PEARY IN THE ARCTIC REGIONS

stopped on buildings to which Peck, Martin & Co. were furnishing materials. On that call 1,000 men went out, and at various times in the next year or two there was a continuance of this agitation in the building trades, the employers finally, it is thought, getting the best of the struggle.

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The eight-hour agitation was publicly begun on the last of May, 1890, which, taking it all in all, was a year characterized by very general and widespread labor disturbances. The strike of the Pittsburg puddlers cost them more than \$170,000 in wages. The strike of the Turtle Creek miners cost them \$189,000. Twenty-six thousand men struck in Chicago early in the year for an eight-hour working day; 2,000 builders struck in Boston, and in Indianapolis 2,000 mill-hands struck.

A Year
of Labor
Disturb-
ances

In Binghamton, in June, 1890, there was a very interesting strike of 1,600 boys and girls employed in the cigar factories. They asked an increase of wages. They made a bitter fight for what they deemed their rights, and were treated with much severity, it was contended, by the officers of the law. Up to October 3d of that year sixty-two of the strikers had been arrested, "picketing" became a crime, and civil suits for damages were brought against forty leaders of the strikers and against the managers of the Binghamton *Leader*, a newspaper which had given the strikers much encouragement. The tremendous strike of the dock laborers and sailors in Australia began on September 1st of that year, 100,000 of them going out, and completely blocking the traffic in that part of the world. It cannot be an exaggeration to say that the strikers of that year, 1890, lost many millions of dollars in wages. On September 16, 1890, 200 members of the National Gold and Silver Beaters' Union struck for an increase of wages, in New York, and there were similar strikes in Boston, Philadelphia, and Chicago, all successful.

In 1890 the Connellsville coke strikes attracted general attention, and in the disturbances which ensued a dozen or more lives were lost. The strikers were defeated at all points, losing their homes, their cause, and \$500,000 in wages.

In February, 1891, the troubles of the union cloakmakers and tailors broke out afresh in New York city, and strikers from these unions were accused of having invaded the home of a contractor in Jamaica, L. I., of wrecking his shop, and of throwing vitriol on a child.

Another
Strike by
Cloak-
makers
and
Tailors

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Strike at
Kearny

The town of Kearny, N. J., which practically grew up around the great Clark thread mills, was in 1891 the scene of a strike which entailed much suffering upon the employees. In 1873 William Clark had come from Scotland to Kearny and founded the thread mills, to which in 1886 he imported a man named Walmesley as superintendent. In the ensuing years the hands struck three times against what they said was Mr. Walmesley's offensive treatment of them, but lost in each case. In December, 1890, they went out again, because he refused to take back some men they said he had unjustly discharged. By March 1, 1891, their strike was at an end, the employees still refusing to go back, and the mills having been filled with non-union hands.

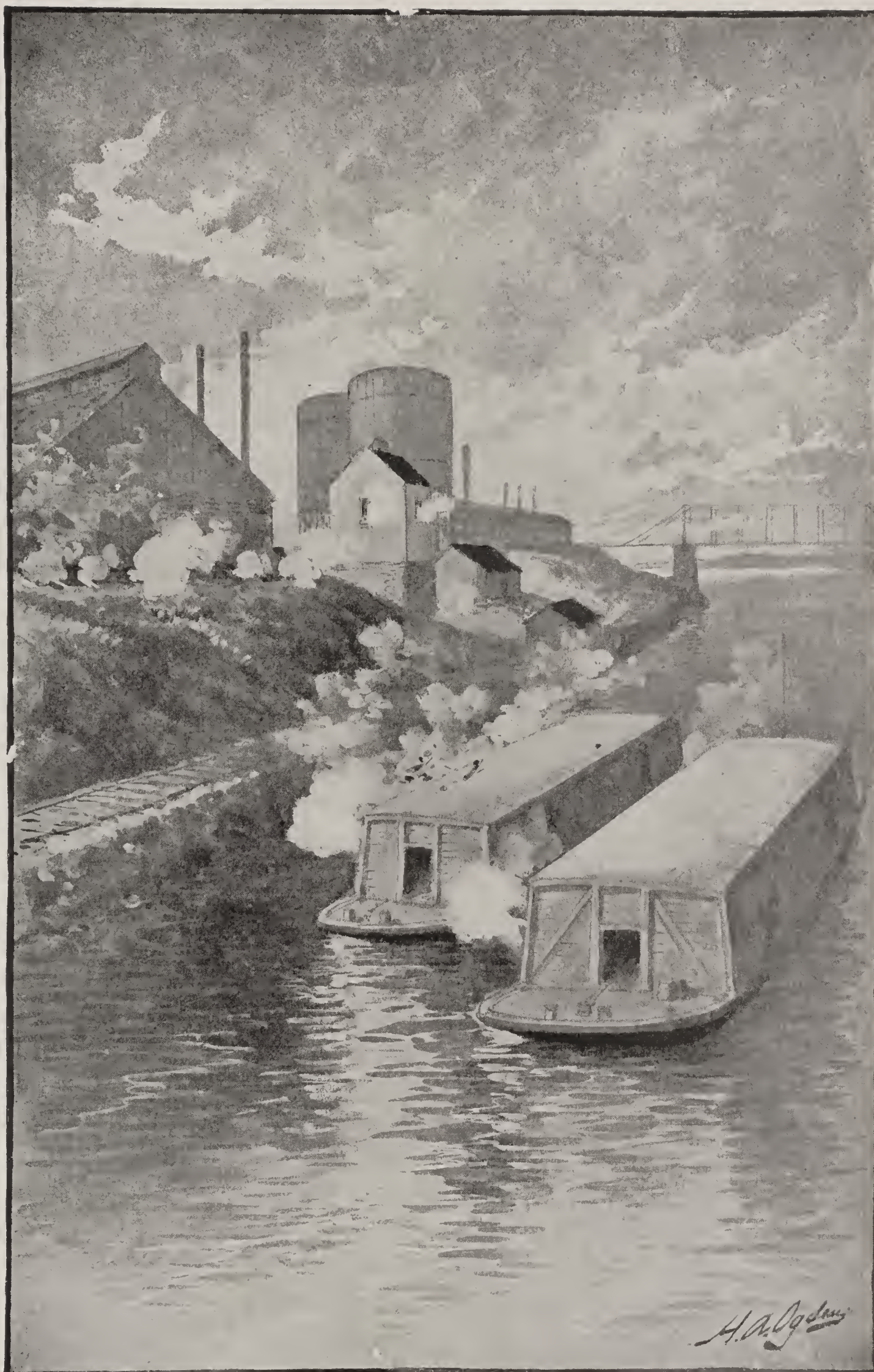
One of the mills belonging to the Carnegie Steel Company is on the Monongahela River, at Homestead, Pa., a few miles from Pittsburgh. In 1889, a sliding scale of wages was adopted, by which the pay of the workmen was increased or diminished in accordance with the variation in prices. The agreement, however, was that \$25 per ton should be the lowest wages paid for what is known as 4x4 Bessemer steel billets.

This contract ended in June, 1892, and the company notified their workmen that the minimum or lowest price thereafter would be \$22. They gave as a reason for the change that the improvements in the machinery enabled the men to earn a larger amount of money than before by the same labor. The company insisted further that December 31st, instead of June 30th, should be the date for the termination of the contract fixing the annual wages.

Strike
at the
Carnegie
Works

The men refused to accept the agreement, and were sustained by the Amalgamated Association of Steel and Iron Workers. They denied that the increased output made necessary the reduction, and regarded the change of time named as caused by the fact that in mid-winter they were not in so good situation to resist a scaling-down of wages as in summer. They demanded the continuance, therefore, of the old agreement. Mr. H. C. Frick, the chairman of the company, raised the minimum to \$23, and the men came down to \$24. Beyond that neither would go.

Mr. Frick finally announced that if the men did not accept his terms by June 24th, the company would no longer deal with the union. The workmen held out, and on the 1st of July the lockout began.



THE BATTLE AT HOMESTEAD, PA., JULY, 1892

FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY H. A. OGDEN

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The company determined to keep their works going with the help of non-union men, and were prepared to hire armed watchmen to protect their property should it become necessary. Neither side would yield a point, and unfortunately, that great remedy under such strained circumstances—arbitration—was not considered by any concerned.

Employ-
ment of
Pinker-
ton De-
tectives

The excitement and turbulence increased until the sheriff of Allegheny County was unable to control the mob. In the mean time, the company hired some 270 men of the Pinkerton Detective Agency of Chicago to guard the mill. This was a dangerous step, in the inflamed state of the community. Well aware of what was likely to follow, the attempt was made to convey the men to the mill secretly at night by way of the river from Pittsburg. But the approach of the detectives was signalled to the suspicious employees, and, filled with anger and resentment, they awaited the coming of the hired guards.

The barges with the Pinkerton men on board reached Homestead about four o'clock on the morning of Wednesday, July 6th. A short parley was held with the hundreds of angry workmen on the bank. While it was going on, some one (it is uncertain from which side) fired a shot. This precipitated a fierce fight. The barges drew off and soon repeated the attempt to land, but failed again, whereupon they anchored in mid-stream.

Irregular firing was kept up through the day. The workmen used a cannon and made a fort of steel bars. It is not known of a certainty how many fell on both sides. The officers were armed with Winchester rifles and killed about eleven workmen and wounded eighteen. The cannon on the shore was charged with slugs and scrap-iron, while some of the workmen had firearms. They killed six detectives and wounded at least twenty.

Sur-
render
of the
Officers

The situation of the officers on the barges finally became so desperate in the face of the infuriated mob surrounding them, that at about five o'clock in the afternoon they surrendered and were disarmed. The leading strikers assured them of safety, but when the Pinkerton men came ashore the fury of the mob could not be restrained. They repeatedly assaulted the men on their way to jail, fully 100 being seriously injured. The jail was unable to hold all the prisoners, who were soon taken to Pittsburg. This left the strikers masters of the situation for the time.

The sheriff now appealed to Governor Pattison for military aid. He declined to give it until assured that every other resource was exhausted. The sheriff tried to organize a posse, but was obliged to notify the governor that it was impossible, and the county authorities could not preserve the peace nor restore the mill to its owners. Then the governor, on July 10th, ordered out all the military forces of the State, some 8,000 men, under Major-General G. R. Snowden. Two days later the troops quietly occupied the town. No outbreak occurred, for the presence of the military overawed the strikers, but the situation was critical. The baffled workmen were watchful, angered, revengeful, and "bided their time."

The Carnegie Company posted notices that unless the employees returned to work, their places would be filled by non-union men. Warrants were issued for the arrest of the leaders of the strike, Hugh O'Donnell, Hugh Ross, Burgess McLuckie, and others, on the charge of murder in the killing of the Pinkerton men on July 6th. All of the arrested parties were released on bail.

The lamentable events at Homestead attracted the attention of Congress, which appointed a committee of the House, three Democrats and two Republicans, with instructions to investigate and report upon the causes of the trouble and the workings of the Pinkerton system.

The excitement, which had subsided to a great extent, flamed up again on the 23d of July, through the attempted assassination of Mr. Frick. A Russian Hebrew anarchist, named Berkman, gained entrance to the office of Mr. Frick under the pretence of being connected with "The New York Employment Agency," and fired three shots at him, two of which took effect. Mr. Frick grappled with his assailant, and was assisted by Vice-Chairman Leischman, who happened to be in his office. A violent struggle followed, during which Mr. Frick was stabbed seven times with a dirk knife. With the aid of the clerks, who rushed in, the assassin was finally overpowered and taken to the police station.

In the Criminal Court at Pittsburg, September 19th, the jury, without leaving their seats, convicted Berkman, who was sentenced to twenty-two years in the penitentiary. The act of this miscreant was condemned by the workingmen generally, even in Homestead, where so many were bitterly opposed to Mr. Frick. Though the man had accomplices in New York, his crime was not the outcome

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Attempt
to
Assassi-
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Frick

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—With-
drawal
of the
Troops

of any wide conspiracy. Mr. Frick's wounds proved less severe than was supposed, and he was at work in his office again the following month.

The company carried out their threat of employing non-union men. There had been 3,800 employees in the Homestead mill, of whom 1,200 were replaced by the 1st of August, with more continually coming, mainly from the East. Matters were so tranquil that most of the troops were withdrawn.

There were no signs of yielding, however, on the part of the strikers. At an immense meeting of the Amalgamated Association, August 2d, it was resolved to continue the struggle. Contributions had been sent in and were still coming from sympathizers in all parts of the country. Several sympathetic strikes took place in the other Carnegie mills, the most important of which were those at the Union Mills in Pittsburg and the Duquesne and Beaver Falls mills. The Duquesne strikers, however, soon went back to work, convinced that the fight was hopeless.

By the 1st of October the mills were running in charge of non-union men. Matters seemed so tranquil that on the 13th of that month the last of the troops, after ninety-five days' service, were withdrawn from Homestead.

With their departure, however, disorder broke out again. Conflicts between the new and old workmen were frequent, though not of a serious nature. The bitterness of feeling was mainly due to the fact, evident to all by this time, that the employers had become masters of the situation.

Collapse
of the
Strike

The fatal blow to the strike came November 20th, when the Amalgamated Association, by a vote of 101 to 91, officially declared the strike at an end. The direct cause of this break was the act of 300 mechanics and day laborers, who, three days before, went to the mills, asked for work, and were given places. With the official declaration that the strike was off, a general rush was made for the company's office by the men who had been idle for five months. The company found places for the majority, but treated with them as individuals, requiring each to sign a pledge that he would not belong to any labor organization, and would submit to the rules and regulations of the company. The leaders of the strike, who were on the "black list," were refused employment.

Now as to the cost of the Homestead strike: The strikers lost at

least \$2,000,000 and the company double that amount. The expense of the state troops was some \$500,000. To this total must be added the cost to Allegheny County in the murder, treason, riot, and other cases resulting from the disturbance. More lamentable than all were the two-score deaths due to the same cause.

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TO

The mining district of Cœur d'Alene is in Shoshone County, Idaho. The twelve mines where the trouble occurred are about



TYPES OF STRIKERS

eighty miles from Spokane. The vast value of these mines will be understood when it is stated that their output was from 100 to 400 tons of ore a day, and that the total yield was one-eighth of the silver and lead consumption of the United States. The annual product is estimated to be \$8,000,000.

A regulation put in force in the spring of 1892 made the wages of unskilled laborers, such as shovellers and carmen, \$3.00 per day, that of the skilled laborers remaining as before, namely, \$3.50 per day. The Miners' Union demanded the latter price for all laborers. The company refused, and a lockout, involving 3,000 miners, began April 1st.

Lockout
at Cœur
d'Alene

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TO

As at Homestead afterwards, the company imported non-union men to take the places of the strikers, and with the inevitable result. The crisis was brought about by the United States courts at Boisé City when they issued a perpetual injunction against the Miners' Union, restraining it from acts of violence. The governor of Idaho, appreciating the gravity of the situation, and feeling himself unable to meet it, applied to President Harrison to send troops to prevent any outbreak. A President is always reluctant to take such a step, and he declined for the time to do so.

Violence
by
Strikers

The non-union men at work in the mines were attacked on July 11th by a large force of union miners. They resisted bravely, but after several of their number had been killed were obliged to surrender. A few days later a car loaded with dynamite was run into the concentrating works of the Frisco mine, which were utterly wrecked by the explosion.

Emboldened by their success, the miners rose in arms throughout the whole region, and, marching from mine to mine, compelled the non-union men to surrender, and forced their employers to send them away.

The governor called out the State militia, but only 200 were available, and they of course were powerless. President Harrison was again appealed to, and he issued orders for the United States troops at Forts Sherman, Walla-Walla, Vancouver, Spokane, Missoula, and Keogh, numbering some 2,000 men, to go to the scene of disturbance. Martial law was declared throughout the district.

General W. P. Carlin, of Fort Sherman, occupied Wardner, July 14th, without resistance, and placed forces at the other mining towns. Between 300 and 400 rioters were arrested and turned over to the civil authorities at Boisé City, the rest fleeing to the mountains. This vigorous action brought back order, and on July 23d most of the soldiers were ordered home. Martial law was suspended on November 16th.

Strike at
Buffalo

Grand Master Sweeney, of the Switchmen's Union, ordered out the switchmen, August 14, 1892, at the yards of the Erie, Lehigh Valley, and Buffalo Creek railroads at Buffalo, N. Y. His action was based upon the refusal of the roads to grant an advance in wages which would raise the pay of the switchmen on roads running east of Buffalo so as to equal that received on the western lines. The Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western was the only road that acceded to the demand of the strikers.

The other companies immediately filled the places of the strikers with non-union men, whereupon the strikers resorted to violence. A large number of freight cars loaded with merchandise, two passenger cars, and other property were set on fire and destroyed. Trains were derailed, an engine and water-tank wrecked, and the non-union men repeatedly assaulted. These lawless acts were disavowed by the Switchmen's Union, and declared to be the work of desperate men having no affiliation with the strikers.

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The sheriff's posse, numbering less than 50 men, were disarmed by the strikers, and the 200 special policemen sworn in could do nothing beyond the city limits. As a result, traffic was blocked, and little work was done at the yards.

Weak-
ness of
the Au-
thorities

The situation became so grave that on Monday, August 15th, General Doyle ordered out the Sixty-fifth and Seventy-fourth regiments of the National Guard. Still the strike spread, taking in the switchmen of the Lake Shore road. The strikers continued violent, and the sheriff and mayor of Buffalo appealed to Governor Flower to call out the entire militia of the State. The following day the governor ordered several regiments from New York, Brooklyn, and other places, and notified the rest to hold themselves in reserve.

This act of the governor concentrated some 8,000 troops in Buffalo, where their presence overawed the strikers. Violence ceased, but the switchmen would not yield, and the strike extended to the Nickel Plate, the Buffalo, Rochester, and Pittsburg, and the Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western roads. By the latter part of August the only road in Buffalo not involved was the Grand Trunk and Michigan Central. Despite all this, however, and the fact that the number of strikers was nearly 700, it became evident that failure was before them. Their places were rapidly filled, and the new men were protected at their work. With a view of adding strength to his position, Mr. Sweeney called together the officials of the Engineers', Conductors', Firemen's, and Trainmen's Unions, but they declined the risk of a sympathetic strike. This refusal brought about the collapse of the strike, which Mr. Sweeney declared off at midnight, August 24th.

Failure
of the
Strikers

There had been trouble for a long time in Tennessee because of the Convict Labor Law, as it is called. A crisis was reached as long ago as July 14, 1891. The Briceville mines belong to the Tennessee Coal-Mining Company of Knoxville, who leased convicts to

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—

work them. Forty other convicts were set to work making barracks for those employed in the mines. On the night of July 14th, 300 miners surrounded the convict camp, and told the guard that their labor would not be permitted in that part of the State. Furthermore, they informed the convicts that they were at liberty to go whither they chose. Only two of the prisoners accepted the boon of freedom thus offered.

Governor Buchanan, being appealed to by the superintendent of state prisons, called out a part of the state militia, and another body



CAMP SCENE UNDER LEHIGH VALLEY RAILROAD COAL TRETTLE

of convicts under the escort of about 100 troops were sent to the mines. The miners, to the number of 1,000, armed themselves, marched into Briceville, surrounded the militia, and summoned them to surrender. Seeing his hopeless situation, the commander of the militia agreed to take the convicts back to Knoxville, and did so.

Labor
Troubles
in Ten-
nessee

The strong force of miners now marched to the mines of the Knoxville Iron Company and forced the guards there to send away the 125 convicts. Ten more companies of troops were hurried to the scene of trouble. They included artillery armed with Gatling guns. A deadly collision looked inevitable.

Considerable sympathy was felt for the strikers. During all the excitement only about a half-dozen convicts escaped. The miners were orderly, but declared that as soon as the troops were with-

drawn they would liberate the convicts, whose employment they conceived to be a great injustice to free labor. They appointed a committee of five to go to Nashville and Knoxville to confer with the governor and mine owners in the hope of reaching a compromise. The strikers further pledged themselves not to injure a dollar's worth of property, and that no violence should be offered any one except in self-defence.

The governor met the committee, July 22d, and told them he would call an extra session of the Legislature and recommend that the con-

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TO



CHARGING THE STRIKERS

vict system be amended if not repealed. Meanwhile, the convicts must be returned to the mines, and the troops would be withdrawn upon the promise of the miners not to molest them. The latter, after fully considering the matter, gave the required pledge.

The Legislature convened in extra session, August 17th. A heated discussion followed, but a decision was finally reached that that body could not abrogate or amend the existing contract with the prison lessees. On September 15th, the bill abolishing the convict lease system was defeated. This placed affairs where they were before the trouble.

The miners had had their hopes raised, only to have them dashed to the ground again. They felt, as has been stated, that the em-

Legisla-
tive
Action

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TO
—Release
of
Convicts

ployment of convicts in the mine was a great injustice, and thousands of people throughout the State sympathized with them. The disaffected now resorted to violence.

With their numbers greatly increased, they broke out in open revolt in October. At Coal Creek, Briceville, and Oliver Springs the convicts, numbering about 400, mostly colored men, were released. At Oliver Springs, on November 1st, the 160 convicts were set free, the prison was burned, and \$15,000 worth of the company's property destroyed.

Governor Buchanan issued two proclamations. The first offered



DIGGING TRENCHES

State
Action

a reward of \$5,000 for the arrest and conviction of the leader or leaders in the convict releases, and \$250 additional for the conviction of each participant in the riots. The second proclamation promised \$25 for the capture of each released convict. Nearly everybody knew who were the leaders of the revolt, but no attempt was made to arrest them, for it was impossible to secure the evidence with which to convict. Most of the convicts were recaptured in the course of a few weeks, the cost to the State being about \$10,000.

The quiet, which lasted for a time, was broken by a disturbance in the latter part of November of another nature. The Cumberland Company offered employment to free laborers without regard to color.

A number of blacks took advantage of the offer, but their houses were attacked by an armed mob, and most of the occupants fled in terror.

Governor Buchanan and a majority of the citizens of Tennessee were opposed to the convict system, so that in one sense the stand taken by the miners was that of the State itself, though public sentiment condemned the deeds of violence already described, and those that followed.

On August 13, 1892, 400 miners burned the stockade at Tracy City, and then, marching to the mines, ordered out the 25 guards and 390 prisoners, who were placed on a train and sent to Nashville. On the road the convicts cut the train and some of them escaped. They were fired upon by the guards, who killed one and wounded another. The following day a train with reinforcements for the stockade at Inman was compelled to turn back. The next morning the 65 guards and 300 convicts at Inman were made prisoners and sent to join the others at Nashville. Troops on their way from Chattanooga and Knoxville to the aid of the sheriff were stopped. On August 16th, a force of miners, numbering nearly 2,000, compelled the weak guard at Oliver Springs to surrender. Then they and the 92 convicts were marched out and despatched to Knoxville by way of Cincinnati.

There was one man who, amid this confusion, weakness, and timidity, thrilled the State by his heroism. He was Colonel Kellar Anderson, who with 150 state troops made his way to Coal Creek, one of the points of disturbance. The wires communicating with him were cut, and there was a general fear that he and his command had been massacred, for the fierce miners were rapidly gathering from all quarters, and it was known that he and his little company were surrounded.

On August 18th the large force attacked Colonel Anderson's position, but were received with so deadly a fire that a number were killed and the rest put to flight. Rallying, the miners charged again, and were not only repulsed, but lost a squad of their men, who were taken prisoners by Colonel Anderson. Then a third assault was made, only to be repelled as before.

This treatment was so unexpected to the assailants that they abandoned the attack and displayed a flag of truce. Colonel Anderson was asked to go unarmed under its protection, with the prisoners,

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TO
—

Daring
Acts
of the
Strikers

Valor of
Col. An-
derson

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TOA
Treach-
erous
Capture

to the railway station and address the people, urging their obedience to the law. He agreed to do so, but was betrayed. As soon as he placed himself within reach of the miners he was made prisoner, and threatened with death if he refused to send an order to the garrison to surrender. Colonel Anderson in vigorous language expressed his opinion of his treacherous captors and defied them. They threatened several times to lynch him, and he believed his death was a matter of only a few hours, but he remained as firm as a rock, and dared them to do their worst.

Meanwhile, hoping that with the leader in their hands they could crush the militia, the miners made two more attacks, but were repelled by the troops under Lieutenant Fyffe.

Brigadier-General S. T. Carnes concentrated the National Guard at Knoxville and moved towards Coal Creek. Leaving the railway some miles distant, so as to avoid the dynamite-mines there was reason to believe were laid, he advanced upon the village, only to find that most of the malcontents had taken to the hills.

The first thing done by General Carnes was to seize more than a hundred miners as hostages and demand the immediate release of Colonel Anderson. He was set free at once. A body of volunteers under Major D. A. Carpenter on their way to Coal Creek from another direction were ambushed by the miners, lost three killed and several wounded, and were driven back to Offuts, where they learned that the garrison at Coal Creek had been relieved by General Carnes.

Order was now soon restored. Many of the miners engaged in the disturbances fled into West Virginia and Kentucky, and the convicts were returned to the mines and set to work under military protection. This was the only possible way of working them, and even that has since been attended with occasional outbreaks.

Building
Strikes
in New
York

The series of strikes ordered by the Board of Working Delegates in New York against the Building Material Dealers' Association resulted in the defeat of the men, who scrambled for their old places on August 9, 1892. This strike began on the new Criminal Court building in Centre Street in May. The grievance was the fact that one Paul Chandler, an engineer employed by the Jackson Architectural Iron Company, had refused to pay a fine of \$50 imposed on him by the union, and in spite of this stigma was at work on the building. District Association 253 of the Knights of Labor took up the fight, and the bricklayers and allied trades who refused to



A HERO OF THE STRIKE

FROM THE ORIGINAL PAINTING BY J. STEEPLE DAVIS

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TO
—

Failures
and
Suc-
cesses

The
Great
English
Coal
Strike

strike were forced out. The men finally submitted without conditions, having lost \$1,000,000.

In the spring of 1892 all the workingmen of New Orleans were organized into unions, and soon afterwards the street-car hands struck for higher wages, and won their strikes one after another. On November 3d a general strike of all trades was ordered, and only four out of 15,000 men refused to go out. The strike collapsed on November 11th, the men losing \$500,000, their employers \$750,000, and the city of New Orleans about \$5,000,000.

The strike of the pavers in New York city in 1892 lasted for some fourteen weeks, the men finally returning to work on the original terms of their employment, after a loss, it was said, of \$50,000.

The Carpenters' Union of New York won their strike against Contractor Downey on March 3, 1892. He was accused of employing cabinet-makers to do carpenter work at less wages than the Carpenters' Union demanded. The lockout of the New England Granite Syndicate in May, 1892, caused the idleness in New York, New Jersey, and New England of 70,000 men.

The interesting strikes in this country in the year 1893 were the famous Ann Arbor strike, in which the United States courts made such radical decisions, and those on the Lehigh Valley Railroad and in Danbury, Conn.

The whole industrial world, of course, had its attention attracted to the great English coal strike, by which it was said the enormous sum of \$150,000,000 had been lost. In Sheffield alone nine-tenths of the population had been forced into idleness by reason of the inability of their employers to get coal. This particular agitation was against a reduction of wages which the men feared was about to be made, and caused untold suffering all over the British Isles. It was successfully settled by Lord Rosebery on November 18, 1893, after a dinner party to which he had invited the leaders of both sides.

In June, 1893, eight or ten strikers who had quit work for a contractor on the drainage canal near Chicago were killed in a fight with workmen.

The strike on the Little Toledo, Ann Arbor, and North Michigan Railroad began in March, the Brotherhoods of Locomotive Engineers and of Locomotive Firemen being involved. Judges Taft and Ricks, of the United States Court, ordered Chief Arthur, of the former Brotherhood, to promulgate an order that the by-laws of the

Brotherhood requiring members to refuse to handle cars of a boycotted non-union line were not in force. He obeyed this order of court on March 22, 1893. This marks an era in the national history of labor agitation.

Since the Ann Arbor decision, courts have not hesitated to go still further in the repression of labor movements which are deemed unlawfully injurious to vested rights. On December 10, 1893, the receivers of the Northern Pacific Railroad Company applied to Judge Jenkins, in the United States Court in Milwaukee, for an order restraining the employees of that company from combining and conspiring to quit, with or without notice, the service of the road, with the object of embarrassing its operation, and generally from interfering with officers and agents of the receivers or their employees in any manner by actual violence, intimidation, threats, or otherwise.

This order was issued and served on December 26th, on the thirty-two men who composed the conference committee which had met the receivers. A similar order had been issued in the Ann Arbor case, but only after a strike was actually in progress.

Early in November, 1893, the operatives on the Lehigh Valley Railroad lines struck work, and on November 21st, 27,000 workingmen in the Wilkesbarre coal mines, who had no grievance against their employers, were forced to quit work for lack of railroad cars to move their products. The Lehigh strike was declared off on December 5, 1893, and a scramble for old places began among the men. Many were taken on again, but many found themselves unable to secure work. The point at issue in this strike was an interesting one. It was stated as follows, after examination of the conditions at Wilkesbarre: "The railroad officials shall recognize our amalgamated railroad society. They shall receive our head officer. We have a head as well as the railroad." Twenty engines were burned out. About one-half of the engineers and firemen and three-fourths of the trainmen got back, as individuals. New schedules of wages were issued, and a rule made that only men under forty-five years of age should be employed as engineers. Vain efforts were made to get up another strike against these regulations. G. W. Gourley, a non-union telegraph operator, brought from Philadelphia to Wilkesbarre in the course of the strike, died on December 9th of corrosive poisoning, and strikers were accused. Nothing was proven. The regular quarterly dividend on the Lehigh Valley stock,

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Legal
Steps
Against
Strikes

Strike
on the
Lehigh
Valley
Railroad

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 —

Presi-
 dent
 Wilbur's
 Views

due in January, 1894, was passed. In a report to the Board of Directors, President E. P. Wilbur said that "the losses to freight and equipment during the strike amounted to \$77,000." It was said that the strike cost the company about \$600,000. In his report President Wilbur continued: "For the first time in the history of railroads the federated unions have united with the railroad organizations in an attempt to force recognition of and submission to demands which, if acceded to, would, in the opinion of the officers of your company, take the management of your property out of the hands of its stockholders and their representatives. The position of this company has been consistently maintained throughout, namely: that the policy of the management of the Lehigh Valley Railroad Company has always been to deal directly and only with its employees. Our company has always been ready to confer fully and freely with its employees, severally or in numbers, on any subject, and will continue to do so, but will neither recognize a foreign element as representative of our men, nor will we recognize a mixed committee from different branches of our service as competent to represent any one branch."

On November 25th nineteen hat factories in Danbury, Conn., closed their doors and discharged their workmen for an indefinite period. It was said that 90 per cent. of the population of this town of 20,000 people depended upon the hat industry for its support. There were thirty-one factories in operation at the time, nineteen of which suddenly refused to recognize the unions of their operatives, proposing three methods of settlement: "First, abandonment of the hat industry; second, the creation of independent shops; third, the continuation of the present agreements with increased privileges from the trade unions." The operatives declining to agree to any of these, the lockout began. Arbitration was instantly proposed all over the country. The remarks on this subject of a writer in *The Independent* may find place here:

Errors
 Regarding
 Arbitration

"Arbitration is good where both sides can be brought to agree to it. If one side objects it is, of course, impractical. Compulsory arbitration is not to be thought of. It would imply an invasion of the rights of both capital and labor. It goes on the assumption that workmen have the right to insist on employment, and that the owners have a right to insist upon service. Capital must be free to employ labor on the best terms it can make; labor must be free to

engage itself where it can get the best rates. . . . Labor must be free, capital must be free. If the problem raised by strikes is solved, it must be on the basis of liberty."

The Danbury trouble was talked of all over the country. Offers were made to found a co-operative shop for the men. A special town meeting was held on December 6th, and \$50,000 was voted "to aid the unemployed," the latter doing most of the voting. One firm of employers took the employees back under the old terms on December 26th. On January 3d the other employers issued a warning to their locked-out men in which they said:

"We have waited about five weeks without taking any action that might deprive our former employees of an opportunity to work for us. If applications are not promptly made by them, and should they continue to prevent others from working for us so that we cannot fill the orders we now have in a reasonable time by work performed, it will be necessary to have the goods made elsewhere. It will be necessary for those who may receive employment to recognize the right of employers to employ whom they desire, whether members of a trade union or not."

There was a curious strike in Walter Damrosch's Symphony Orchestra on December 17, 1893, in Carnegie Music Hall. The other musicians, members of the Musical Union, refused to play with Otto Hegner, the 'cellist, because he was not a member of the union. He had not been six months in the United States, and was ineligible to membership, had he wished to join. It was feared at first the Symphony Orchestra, which had been organized in 1890 with a guaranty fund of \$50,000 for the first year, might be disrupted. There was a compromise at length, and Mr. Damrosch yielded so far as to withdraw Hegner, who thereafter appeared only as a soloist. Mr. Damrosch was afterwards fined by the Musical Union for asking his orchestra to play with a non-union man.

The strike for increased wages on the Great Northern Railway, which began about the middle of April, 1894, involved 5,000 employees on 3,700 miles of lines. It suspended traffic, passenger and freight. The fight had been a determined one. United States troops were called upon to guard mail trains. The Knights of Labor joined hands with the striking members of the American Railway Union. On April 30th the claims of employers and employees were adjudicated by a conference of St. Paul and Minneapolis business

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TO

Warning

to the

Strikers

Strike

on the

Great

Northern

Railway

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TO

men. Nineteen-twentieths of the points claimed for the strikers were awarded them, it is said, wages being restored to the figure at which they stood before the ten per cent. cut. All hands were ordered to return to work. But it was declared that all employees



THE ANACONDA MINE, CRIPPLE CREEK

who had been arrested for delaying the mails, abandoning trains between stations, and maliciously injuring the company's property, must have their cases investigated before they could go back to work.

The hands employed in the silk ribbon factories of Paterson,

N. J., struck in February, 1894. On March 13th there were 10,000 of them idle, and a mob of 1,000 of them rioted, invaded dye-shops, forced other workmen to strike, and terrorized mill owners. The cause of it all was the agreement of the United Silk Weavers of America on a scale of wages higher than the one in force. Strikes resulted in New York, Hoboken, Paterson, and Williamsburg. A ruinous idleness followed. A conference arranged by the business men of Paterson on April 29th failed to bring about an agreement. On May 2d Levy Brothers opened their mill, and ten out of 125 weavers returned at manufacturers' prices. On May 7th eleven out of 1,500 strikers returned to work. Non-union men were at work early in June in many of the mills.

Strike
of the
Coal
Miners

The strike of the coal miners of the United States in the spring and summer of 1894 will be famous in history. It was deliberately planned. On April 11th the National Miners' Convention in Columbus, O., resolved that "the greatest coal-miners' strike the world ever saw" should be begun on April 21st for "the old scale and no compromise." And it was begun. President John McBride said on April 23d that 128,000 men were out in Alabama, Indiana, Illinois, Ohio, West Virginia, Pennsylvania, Minnesota, the Indian Territory, Iowa, Maryland, Tennessee, and Kentucky. By May 1st many industries, especially in the West, had been forced to shut down for

lack of fuel. More than a million and a half had been lost to the miners in wages. On May 6th miners were starving in Alabama. By the middle of May the railroads everywhere felt the coal famine severely. On May 25th rioting was in progress in many localities, and a good many lives had been lost. On June 8th it was announced that the Illinois operators were disposed to give in. By this time at Cripple Creek, Colo., the trouble had assumed the proportions of an insurrection, the governor had been asked to intervene, six citizens had been held prisoners by the strikers, and the state militia and a large number of deputy sheriffs, representing the county police force, were on the ground regarding each other with hostile eyes. On June 5th the representatives of the striking coal miners decided to abandon the idea of forcing a national settlement and to try a district settlement. Force, threats, arguments had been exhausted. In the mean time a peculiarly brutal course had been pursued by the Slav workmen in the coke region of Pennsylvania. For the first time since 1891 the coke ovens were left idle, on April 25th. Dynamite, assassination, amazonian charges, kidnapping, and torture were resorted to by the mob, and shooting and eviction by the masters.

On June 1st it was estimated that \$3,500,000 had been lost in price of coal to operators, freight to the railroad companies, and wages to the miners. Local conferences of miners and operators were held. On June 11th a compromise was agreed upon at such a conference in Columbus, acting for the men in Ohio, Pennsylvania, Indiana, and Illinois. An advance of 15 cents a ton was settled. A general protest against this settlement began the next day. The miners wanted a greater advance. In the mean time the many bridges and much other railroad property had been destroyed. The coke manufacturers began to start their works with non-union men. Many miners' meetings were held rejecting the compromise agreed on at Columbus. The strike in Alabama had already collapsed, "starvation and convict labor" being given as the reasons. The Pittsburg miners agreed to the compromise on being assured by President McBride that it was "take what he got or be disastrously defeated." There was a slow but general resumption of work. President McBride said that the national officers of the miners' organization had been "hurried to a settlement by the knowledge of conspiracies for terrible violence." The miners had lost by June 16th in wages

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TO

Frightful
Out-
rages by
Strikers

Gradual
Collapse
of the
Strike

PERIOD VII about \$12,500,000. The total loss, including that of the operators, to that date had been about \$25,000,000.

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TO
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An incendiary fire in the Mary Lee mine, near Birmingham, supposed to be the work of striking coal miners, resulted in the death of four men, July 20th. The striking Slavs and Italians in the Western Pennsylvania mines armed themselves with dynamite, and two regiments of state troops were ordered to Walston, June 21st. The strikers fled, but in a few days succeeded in persuading many of the non-union men employed in their places to quit work. But days passed without the strikers gaining any decisive advantage, and negroes and other outsiders were successfully put to work. The striking miners, who now saw starvation at their doors, continued to march and countermarch to no purpose. In a battle between negro miners and marching strikers at Scottdale, Pa., July 11th, two negroes were mortally wounded. But it was already settled that the great coal-miners' strike was an utter failure.

Great
Pullman
Car
Strike

The Pullman Car Company, whose works are near Chicago, has been largely engaged for years in the manufacture of sleeping-cars, and has contracts with numerous railway companies for the running of the cars over their lines. Dull times forced the Pullman company, early in the spring of 1894, to give their large number of employees the choice of accepting a cut in their wages or of having the works closed. They accepted the former, the reduction being from twenty-five to almost fifty per cent., with the understanding that the old rates were to be restored as soon as the business of the company warranted it.

The suffering of the workmen was so great that in May they declared they could not live upon the pittance they received, and they demanded the restoration of the old rates. The company refused, declaring that they were running the business at a loss, for no other purpose than that of keeping the men employed. This was not satisfactory, and, on the 11th of May, 3,000 workmen, the majority of the whole number, struck. Thereupon the company closed the works.

Eugene
V. Debs

The American Railway Union, of which Eugene V. Debs is president, took charge of the case and declared a boycott of all Pullman cars. The effect of this sweeping order was to forbid all engineers, brakemen, and switchmen from handling the cars, on whatever road they were used. At the same time the Union demanded that the

Pullman company should submit the dispute to arbitration. The company replied that there was nothing to arbitrate, since the question was whether they should or should not manage their own works. A boycott on all Pullman cars was declared on June 26th, to begin on the Illinois Central, thence spreading over the country. The companies that persisted in handling the Pullman cars were warned that their employees would strike, and behind it all was a threat to call out every trade in the country.

Inasmuch as the railway companies that had nothing to do with the manufacture of the cars were under heavy bonds to draw them, they could not consent to the boycott without enormous loss. They refused, and, on June 29th, President Debs declared a boycott on twenty-two roads running out of Chicago, and ordered the committees representing the employees on each road to call out the workmen as rapidly as possible, thus blocking all freight, passenger, and mail transportation. Some of these roads did not use the Pullman cars, but their officers had joined the Chicago General Managers' Association, and thus incurred the hostility of the American Railway Union, less than a year old, and which had been formed with the object of absorbing within itself all the separate unions of the different classes of railway employees. It had a large following in the West and Southwest, but was weak in the East, where the admirable organization known as the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers has the good will of the employers no less than that of the employees themselves.

The strike, as was expected, extended rapidly. President Debs urged his men to refrain from interference with the property of railroads, but such advice is always disregarded. Rioting soon broke out in many quarters, trains were blockaded or derailed, and men who wished to take the strikers' places were savagely beaten. The cutting off of many supplies from Chicago caused prices to rise to an astonishing figure, and a famine impended. The destruction of railway property became so serious that the companies called on the city and county authorities for protection. The forces furnished being unable to cope with the turbulent mob, Governor Altgeld was appealed to, and he sent troops to the scene, but they, too, were insufficient to overawe the lawbreakers. As is often the case, the militia showed more sympathy with the strikers than with the authorities.

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THE NEW

UNITED

STATES

1865

TO

Failure

to Ar-

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Turbu-

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the

Strikers

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UNITED
STATES
1865
TO

Unfortunately for the strikers, they brought the United States Government into the dispute. The mails and postal service were checked, and deputy marshals were resisted. The national Government is bound to protect the great lines of interstate commerce,



EUGENE V. DEBS

which also suffered interference. Notice of such action was made to the Attorney-General's office at Washington, and on July 2d a Federal writ was issued covering the judicial district of Northern Illinois, forbidding all persons from interfering with the mail-conveyance or with interstate railroad commerce. The arrest of several leaders followed, an act that incited the strikers to threats of revolt and treason. The situation was so alarming that the grand jury was summoned to find indictments

against President Debs and others. The Government having received notice that United States troops were necessary in Chicago to enforce the orders of the courts, a large force of cavalry, artillery, and infantry was sent thither from the regular army. Governor Altgeld, as might have been expected, made a long protest by telegraph, but was properly snubbed, and President Cleveland sent still more troops to Chicago, since it was apparent that the governor's course had encouraged the strikers.

Action
of President
Cleveland

It should be noted that most of the latter were foreigners, chiefly Poles and Bohemians. A mob of more than 20,000 had several collisions with the military, and a number were killed and wounded. Trains were ditched, buildings fired, and more troops were ordered to the scene of disturbances, the President declaring that the law-breakers should be put down, if it required the whole United States army to do it, since the Constitution clearly made such action his duty.

The strike assumed serious proportions in California, where there has long been a strong antagonism to the railroads. The greatest trouble was at Los Angeles, Oakland, and Sacramento, where the

State militia refused to charge the rioters when ordered to do so. While a force of regular troops were going to the scene of the disturbance on the railroad, the train was ditched by strikers, and several were killed and hurt.* There was no fear that the regulars would refuse to attack the law-breakers; the only fear of the soldiers was that they might not be permitted to perform the service for which they had been summoned.

The prompt and stern measures of President Cleveland soon proved effective. In addition, the immense numbers of persons who naturally feel a sympathy with poor men struggling to better their condition were filled with indignation at the acts of the murderous strikers. The rock of safety in this country is the law-loving sentiment of the overwhelming majority. It was seen that the mobs were composed of foreigners—not those that had spent several years in the country and had become Americans in sentiment (and they include many of our best citizens), but ignorant, brutal aliens, the dregs of Europe, hardly able to speak the English language. They were the tools of demagogues, who, like the pestilent carpet-baggers of the South, were eager to adopt any means that promised them personal advantage.

The strength of the strike waned almost as rapidly as it rose. The other labor organizations that were called out refused to obey; instead of doing so, they expressed sympathy and kept at their work. On July 10th, President Debs, Vice-President Howard, and other leaders of the American Railway Union were arrested and arraigned on charge of obstructing the United States mails and of interfering with the execution of the laws of the United States. The leaders were released on bail. They and others—forty-three in all—were indicted by the Federal grand jury on July 19th, the bonds being fixed at \$10,000 for each. Bail was offered them, but they declined to accept it and were lodged in jail. On December 14th Judge Woods sentenced Debs to six months' imprisonment for contempt, the terms of the other leaders being three months each. Many felt that this summary action, in which the accused were not allowed a trial by jury, was unjustifiable. It was not sympathy for the agitators that

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Good
Effect
of the
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Vigor

Punish-
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of the
Leaders

* Upon the monument erected to the memory of the soldiers killed by the ditching of the train, General W. M. Graham, commandant at the Presidio, caused the inscription to be cut, "Murdered by Strikers." The indignant labor organizations in San Francisco protested and demanded the removal of the words, but the grim soldier replied: "The words are true and they shall remain," and they are there still.

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TO
—Lessons
of the
Strike

led to condemnation of the Federal authorities, but the fact that the men had been condemned and punished without indictment and trial by jury. It was a dangerous step, and a distinct menace to the personal liberty of all citizens.

The strike was a vast failure, and, though it caused much uneasiness and alarm in remote sections not directly affected by the disturbances, it taught several important lessons. We have already referred to one—the peril from ignorant, brutalized foreigners, the offscourings of Europe, that are turned loose upon our shores to become tools of designing men tenfold more guilty than they.

When the flurry was all over, President Debs declared that he never again would have any official connection with a strike, for so long as they are repugnant to society, so long is it idle to strike. No matter upon how extensive a plan it is organized, failure is inevitable. The only remedy is at the polls. The leaders of other organized branches of labor expressed the same sentiment. Workmen must look to the ballot for relief.

The general committee of the strikers on August 5th officially declared the strike at an end in Chicago, and their action was quickly followed in other directions. On July 25th President Cleveland appointed Carroll D. Wright, Commissioner of Labor, John D. Kernan, of New York, and Nicholas E. Worthington, of Illinois, a commission to investigate the causes of the strike. In their report they recommended a permanent United States Railroad Strike Commission of three members, whose recommendations should be enforceable by the courts. It encouraged orderly labor unions, the licensing of railway employees, and a system somewhat of the nature of that prevailing in Massachusetts, for the promotion of arbitration.

Statistics
of the
Strikes

According to the statistics of *Bradstreet*, which appeared in the latter part of January, 1894, there were in 119 principal cities 801,000 unemployed, with about 2,000,000 dependent upon them for support. In New England, 21 cities had 66,200 unemployed, with 154,400 dependants. In New York and New Jersey (including Wilmington, Del.), 15 cities had 223,250 unemployed, with 563,750 dependants. Twenty-four cities in the Central West had 227,340 unemployed, with 443,310 dependants. The same woful story was true of other sections of the country, the only cities containing no enforced idlers being Augusta (Ga.), Mobile, and Houston.

In Boston, February 20th, a throng of about 2,000 unemployed, who



DITCHING A TRAIN

FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY J STEEPLE DAVIS

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TO

A Rebuff

called themselves "Socialist-Anarchists," after being addressed on the Common by a number of speakers, marched to the State house, and through their leaders demanded employment of Governor Greenhalge and an address from him. The governor went out on the balcony and assured the crowd that while he personally would do all he could for them, and would recommend to the legislature such action as was within its sphere, they must not forget that the law-making body had no power to employ men unless it had money to pay them, and unless the work was needed for the public good. He reminded them that the first duty of every citizen was to obey the law.

The leaders of the crowd entered the legislative chambers and laid their demand before the senate and the representatives. Signs of turbulence increased after the withdrawal of the agitators, when the police appeared and cleared the building.

The most striking appeal directly to the law-making body by the unemployed was by Coxey's "Commonweal Army." J. S. Coxey, a horse-breeder and stone-quarry owner in Massillon, O., started from that place, March 25th, with about 75 men. Six days later, when they had reached Beaver Falls, Pa., they numbered 170. The plan of this "army," which carried no weapons, was to gather recruits on the march, and to reach Washington about the 1st of May, by which time it was believed there would be a hundred thousand strong.

The announced object of this movement was to make an impressive demand upon Congress for the enactment of two laws: the first providing for an issue of \$500,000,000 legal-tender notes, to be expended by the Secretary of War at the rate of \$20,000,000 per month in constructing roads throughout the country. The second law was to provide that any State, city, or village may deposit in the United States treasury non-interest-bearing bonds to an amount not more than one-half the assessed valuation of its property, on which the Secretary of the Treasury shall issue legal-tender notes.

The
"Com-
monweal
Army"

The "army" which thus set out for the capital of the country was the strangest procession of the kind that was ever looked upon. There was a mingling of the pathetic and ludicrous appealing to one's sympathy, and, while it excited ridicule in many quarters, it caused misgiving in others. Who should forecast the growth of this multitude which might be recruited at almost every mile, while numerous similar bands started from different parts of the country

towards the same point? How many men would gather in Washington on the 1st of May? What would they do? Would they be controllable?

The movement was a proof that there was, and still is, "something wrong" in our social system. The sad problem that has vexed the ages is not yet solved. When shall it be?

The march was continued with the leader in his carriage and his lieutenants on horses. While their approach excited alarm in many places, they committed no depredations and were enthusiastically received at other points. Sometimes the town authorities supplied their wants and sometimes it was met by private aid, the real purpose being to hasten the departure of the visitors. Additions and desertions kept their number at varying figures, but at no time did it exceed 500, and when Coxey entered Washington, April 29th, he had just 336 men, with whom he paraded through the streets, May 1st. Preparations had been made by the authorities for their coming, and a death blow was administered to the intended spectacular display, in the presentation of the petition, by the action of the police in shutting them out from the Capitol grounds. Coxey and two of his leaders took a short cut, were arrested and fined five dollars apiece, and sentenced to twenty days' imprisonment for violating the statute against carrying a banner in the grounds and trespassing on the grass. The army rapidly crumbled to pieces and passed into oblivion.

Other "armies" converged towards Washington from Oregon, Montana, Colorado, Wyoming, and different points in the West. Unhappily, however, many vagrants and disreputable men took their places in the ranks, and more than one scene of disorder followed. In the State of Washington the "Commonwealers" seized a train, several men were wounded in a fight with deputy marshals, and it became necessary to call out the state militia. Similar depredations were committed in Kansas, Illinois, Indiana, and Pennsylvania. A careful estimate gives the following strength of the six principal "industrial armies": 1. Coxey's, maximum strength, 500; 2. Frye's, from Los Angeles, Cal., near the end of March, maximum, 1,000; 3. Kelly's, from San Francisco, April 3d, maximum, 2,000; 4. Randall's, from Chicago, May 1st, maximum, 1,000; 5. Hogan's, from Montana, April 20th, maximum, 500; 6. One from Oregon, about April 15th, maximum, 900. The total is less than 6,000 men.

The Brooklyn trolley strike in the latter part of January, 1895,

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March of
the
Army

Strength
of the
Indus-
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Armies

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The
Brook-
lyn
Trolley
Strike

was attended by violence and bloodshed. In obedience to the orders of the Knights of Labor, it began on Monday, January 14th, its "violent stage" continuing for sixteen days, when it gradually subsided. The forty-eight trolley lines radiating from the Brooklyn bridge were involved, including the 5,500 men employed on the cars and at the electric power stations.

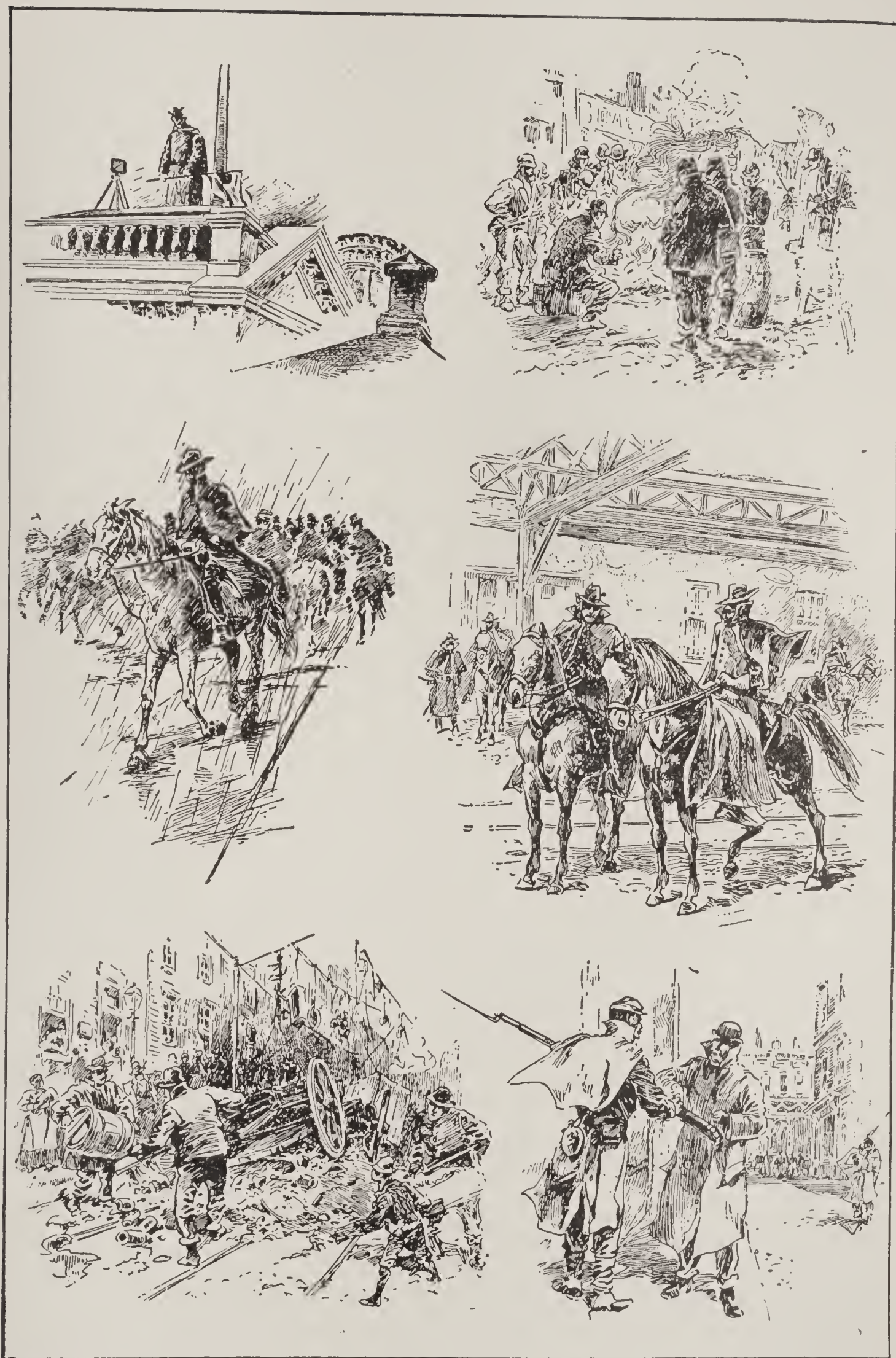
At the opening of the year the men demanded that a working day should consist of ten hours' work during twelve successive hours of time; that the five minutes of waiting for passengers at the beginning and end of every trip should form a part of the ten hours' work, and that the pay for each working day should be raised, as had been promised by the companies, from \$2 to \$2.25. To prevent the crowding out of the regular men by the employment of an unusual number of "trippers" (who received \$1.50 a day on one-trip cars), it was insisted that the number of such extra men should be limited. Furthermore, the employees demanded that no schedule should call for a greater running speed than ten miles an hour. This was a most reasonable demand, since the dangerous speed of the trolley cars in Brooklyn has been the cause of so many deaths (aggregating almost 200 at this writing), that the city has gained a gruesome reputation throughout the country.*

The employers refused to accede to these demands, and the strike followed. Violence was certain to break out, and at the request of the companies the mayor ordered the police to use vigilance and vigor in suppressing disorder. Vicious men mingled with the strikers, and the cars were obstructed, windows were smashed, and the police forced to a standstill. Men who came from other cities to take the places of the strikers were savagely beaten and driven off. On the second day of the strike, 5,000 rioters attacked the police at the Atlantic-Avenue depot, but were repulsed by the mounted policemen.

Rioting
by the
Strikers

Matters rapidly grew worse, and on the fifth day the mayor declared that the police were unable to repress the rioting and keep the tracks clear. He made a requisition for the militia, and the Second Brigade of the National Guard was ordered out, and several lines

* There was grim force in the proposed bill of a New York legislator that the punishment for capital crimes should be changed from electrocution to that of "turning loose" the condemned in Brooklyn. "The trolley cars," said he, "are sure to get them, and they are as effective as electricity."



From Leslie's Weekly

SCENES IN BROOKLYN DURING THE TROLLEY STRIKE, JANUARY, 1895

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TOHelp
from the
State

reopened. On the night of the 19th the mob became so violent at the East New York stables, that the soldiers were compelled to charge five times upon them, during which five persons were wounded.

Meanwhile, attempts had been made to bring the strike to an end by arbitration, but they failed, and the outlook was so threatening that a requisition was made upon Governor Morton for more troops. On Sunday night, the 20th, the 4,000 soldiers comprising the First Brigade crossed the bridge and joined the 2,500 already in Brooklyn.

The city now looked like war times. Streets were barricaded, camp-fires gleamed on the highways, sentries moved to and fro, there were cavalry dashes by the fine Troop A from New York, while many felt that a crisis was approaching.

A general once insisted that it should be a court-martial offence for any officer to order his men to fire over the heads of a mob. It is undoubtedly true that energetic measures at the first appearance of revolt will quell it at once, while leniency encourages rioters to violence. A mob on the Gates-Avenue line shot two policemen, when the soldiers gave them a volley that sent them skurrying to cover.

The subsidence of the strike dated from this point. The strikers saw the inevitable end. Twenty-two of the forty-eight lines were reopened for travel on Wednesday. Collisions occurred at different points, and several lives were lost, but new men were steadily taking the places of the strikers, who saw that if they remained out much longer there would be no room for them to return on any terms. On January 28th the New York troops were ordered to break camp and return home, and on the day following the strikers made conditional proposals to return to work.

Statist-
ics of
the
Strike

In April the special committee of the New York State Assembly appointed to investigate the trolley strike in Brooklyn reported that 5,000 men were thrown out of employment, of whom only about one-tenth recovered their places. The loss in wages to the men was about \$750,000, besides the loss after the close of the strike to those remaining unemployed. It cost \$275,000 to suppress the disorder, while no estimate can be placed upon the loss to the companies and the business community. The causes of the strike were mainly the schemes by which the lines strove to secure an increased profit on capital without giving labor any corresponding benefit. Except for

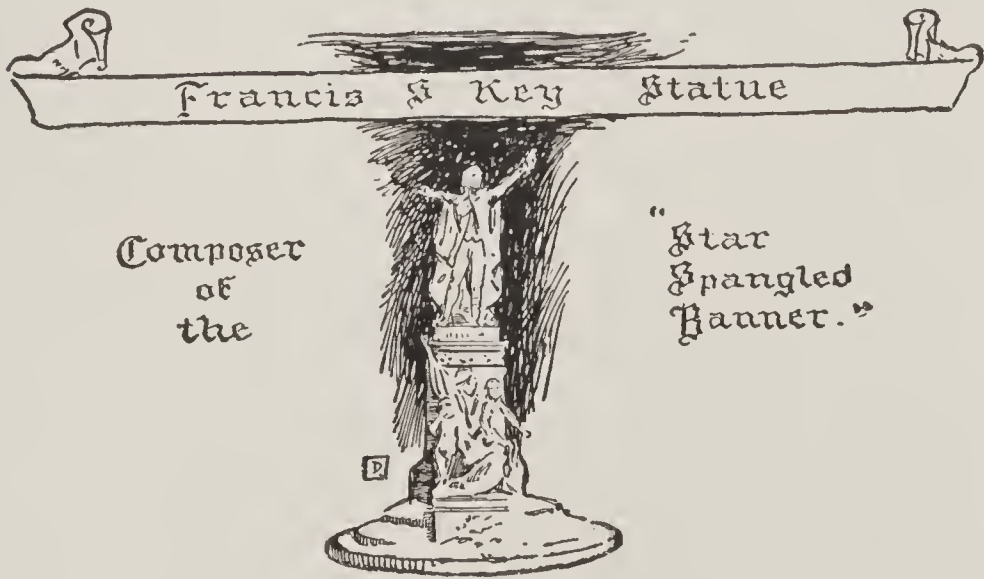
the failure of the men to ask for arbitration before striking, the committee placed the blame for the causes which led to the strike wholly upon the company.

A strike involving thousands of laborers broke out among the coal mines of West Virginia in the summer of 1897. General sympathy was felt for the strikers, whose wages, in many cases, were meagre and hardly above the starvation point. Eugene V. Debs and John R. Sovereign, General Master-Workman of the Knights of Labor, were active in promoting the strike, while P. M. Arthur, Chief of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, expressed his sympathy, though his organization took no official action in the matter. Sympathetic strikes occurred in adjoining States, and the lockout assumed formidable proportions. It lost ground in Western Virginia, where many men returned to work, in response to the offer of increased wages, but the disorganization caused by the widespread suspension of work lasted for a long time.

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TO

Great
Coal
Strike in
West
Virginia





The Great American Desert CHAPTER XC

CLEVELAND'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION, 1893-97 (CONCLUDED)

[*Authorities:* To him who reflects upon the possibilities of industrial development through the agency of the discovery and utilization of nature's forces, there is, perhaps, among the many interesting subjects treated in this chapter, none more suggestive than the "harnessing of Niagara." Energy derived primarily from the sun has been wasted by millions of horse-power for ages in the downpour of those stupendous falls. If that energy were all diverted to human needs, the total manufacturing and locomotive industries of our country could be supplied by it. Add to this the unused energy of our hundreds of rivers, the calorific power in the rays of the sun, and, greater than all, the dynamics in the ebb and flow of the tides, and we have an aggregate beyond the power of the imagination to conceive. The comparatively insignificant beginning at Niagara suggests the substitution of these tremendous forces for human labor in the early future. The same source of energy will perhaps supply cities as remote from each other as Chicago and New York with power for all their manifold needs. It is not by any means improbable that the homes of the future will be warmed in winter and cooled in summer by electricity, and that the same agency will perform most of the work that now constitutes domestic drudgery.

British and American diplomatic correspondence, the excellent "Current History" edited by Alfred S. Johnson, and the leading newspapers and periodicals have been drawn upon for much of the matter in this chapter.]



Niagara Falls.

ON January 4, 1896, President Cleveland signed a proclamation by which Utah became the forty-fifth State of the Union. The order for the addition to the national flag of the star representing the State was issued by Secretary Lamont, August 27, 1895. The position of the star on the flag is at the right-hand end of the fourth row from the top, as shown in the colored frontispiece to Volume Five of this History. At the same time the regulation size of the colors was changed from 6 by 5 feet to 5 feet 6 inches by 4 feet 4 inches.

The constitution of Utah contains several noteworthy features. It grants complete suffrage to women, including the right to hold office and to sit on juries. A thorough liberal and progressive educational system is projected. Grand juries are abolished except in special circumstances, information taking the place of indictment, and the trial jury consists of eight instead of twelve persons, three-fourths of whom may render a verdict in civil cases, but a unanimous vote is necessary to convict of crime. Polygamy, the great blot upon Utah, is prohibited by her new constitution.

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TO

The State has an area of 84,970 square miles, of which 2,780 is water surface. Its chief resources are mineral and agricultural, and its climate is finely adapted to their development. Its population is about 250,000; its assessed valuation of property in 1895 was \$97,983,525, and the total export of mineral product in that year was \$8,312,352. Utah has 19,816 farms, of which 17,684 are free from all incumbrances. The irrigated acreage is 417,455 acres. The number of sheep owned in Utah in 1894 was 2,422,802, valued at \$3,696,934, and yielding a wool clip of 12,119,763 pounds, with a value at shipping points of \$864,260. January 6th was observed as a holiday in celebration of the birth of the new State. The first governor, Heber M. Wells, was elected in the preceding November, and Frank J. Cannon and Arthur Brown, Republicans, were elected United States Senators and took the oath of office January 27th.

The
New
State of
Utah

The power that has gone to waste for ages at Niagara Falls is inconceivable, and the problem of utilizing a portion of it has long engaged the attention and study of scientific minds. As long ago as 1725 the first attempt was made by the operation of a primitive saw-mill. After this, the prodigious torrent was permitted to flow on unfretted until 1842, when Augustus Porter formulated the scheme of hydraulic canals, but none was completed until 1861.

On March 31, 1886, the Niagara Falls Power Company was incorporated, and in 1889 the Cataract Construction Company. Work was begun in October, 1890, three years being required to complete the tunnel, the surface canal, and the first wheel-pits. The canal has an average depth of 12 feet, and a width of 250 feet. It taps the river a mile and a quarter above the falls, and draws off enough water to develop 100,000 horse power. The walls of the canal have ten inlets for delivering water to the wheel-pit in the power-house, at

Harness-
ing
Niagara

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 UNITED
 STATES
 1865
 TO
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the side of the canal. This pit has a depth of 178 feet, and is connected by a lateral tunnel with the main tunnel, which operates as a tail-race, and returns the water to the river below the falls. It took 1,000 men more than three years to excavate the tunnel. There were 300,000 tons of rock removed, and 16,000,000 bricks were used for lining. The turbines work under a head of 140 feet, and each develops 5,000 horse-power.

In August, 1895, the first distribution of power was made to the works of the Pittsburg Reduction Company, near the canal. The Carborundum Company, the Calcium Company, the Buffalo and



SALT LAKE CITY

Niagara Railway Company, and the Niagara Falls Electric Company subsequently made use of the power.

Success
 of the
 Effort

The city of Buffalo, in December, 1895, granted a franchise to the company to supply power to that city, by the terms of which 10,000 horse-power was to be furnished to consumers by June 1, 1896, and 10,000 additional horse-power in each successive year. The Buffalo Railway Company was the first customer. At midnight, on November 15, 1896, the current was transmitted by a pole line, consisting of three continuous cables of uninsulated copper, with a total length of seventy-eight miles.

Since then street cars have been successfully operated, and the Niagara Falls Power Company is busily engaged in preparing more



From Scientific American

HARNESSING NIAGARA—ENGINE-ROOM OF THE NIAGARA FALLS POWER COMPANY

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TO

generators, with which the tremendous energy will be conducted to other industrial points at varying distances from the cataract.

Our country was thrown into excitement in the latter part of 1895 and in the following year by what threatened to involve us in a war with England over the question of the boundary line in Venezuela. There had been a flurry with Spain some time before because of her firing into the American steamer *Allianca*, which she unjustly suspected of being engaged in helping the filibusters of Cuba, but



NIAGARA FALLS

that was satisfactorily settled before the new international dispute arose.

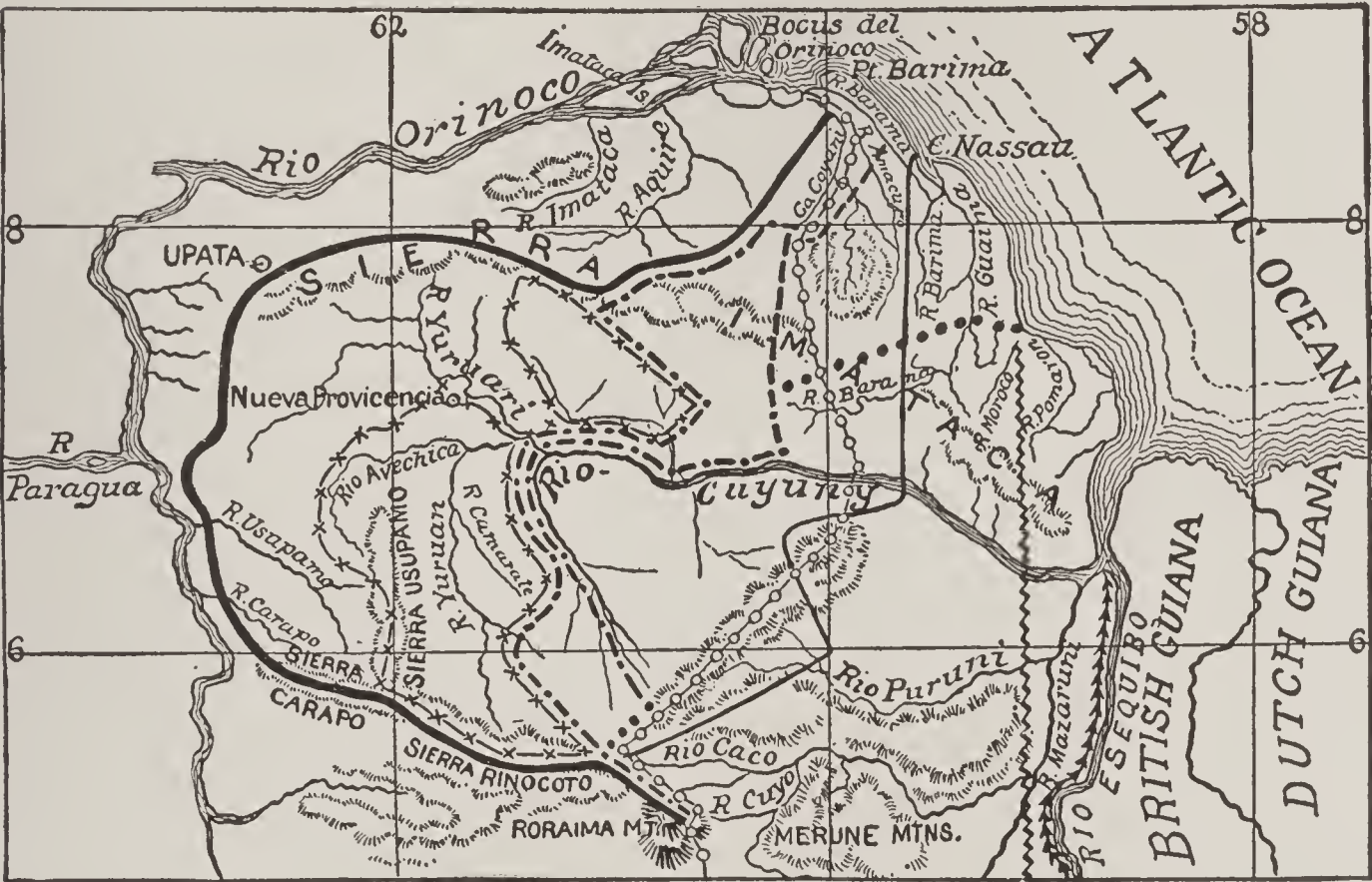
Great
Britain's
Quarrel
with
Vene-
zuela

The quarrel between Great Britain and Venezuela was an old one. Between the mouths of the Orinoco and the Amazon, along the northeast coast of South America, lies the territory which down to 1810 was known as the Guianas. In the year named a large part of this territory was ceded to Venezuela by Spain, while another portion went to Great Britain from Holland in 1814. The boundary between the Dutch and Spanish possessions had never been fixed by treaty. As might have been anticipated, the "earth hunger"

of England soon led to a dispute, which continued until 1887, when it reached a stage that led to a breaking off of the diplomatic relations between her and Venezuela.

Venezuela claims all territory west of the Essequibo River and southward to the border of Brazil, in support of which she presents a long array of historical facts. In 1883, the weak republic began an appeal, continued until 1887, and which at times was pitiful, that the burly, overbearing empire should submit the dispute to arbitration by some disinterested power. In the year named there were found three sources of disagreement—the Guiana frontier, differential

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TO
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MAP OF VENEZUELA

duties, and pecuniary claims—the first overshadowing the others in importance. England persistently refused all appeals while dealing with this weak power. It was not until the latter part of the year 1840 that she advanced beyond the Pomaron River. Then she entered the region named, and set up a claim to the whole Atlantic coast to the Orinoco delta. In 1841, Sir Robert Schomburgk, the English commissioner, erected the boundary since known by his name.

Claims of
Great
Britain

Venezuela was indignant, and ordered the Schomburgk frontier marks at Barima to be removed. Matters rested until 1844, when England proposed a boundary line beginning a short distance west

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TO
—The Dis-
puted
Terri-
tory

of the Pomaron River, but in 1881 she once more set up a claim that included the valleys of the Pomaron and the Moroco; five years later her claim extended to the bank of the Guiana river, and in 1890 she suggested a divisional line that gave her practical control of the Orinoco delta. Finally, in 1893, she proposed a boundary line beginning at the mouth of the Amacuro and taking such course as to include the upper waters of the Cumana and thence to the sierra of the Usupamo. The territory in dispute is larger than the State of New York, and contains gold mines of great richness, a fact that doubtless has much to do with the persistency of England in refusing to submit the dispute to arbitration. Should she succeed in maintaining her claim she would control the navigable outlet of the great Orinoco river, which represents one-fourth of the commerce of South America, and she would in addition exert a marked influence upon the commercial and political relations of Venezuela, Colombia, and Brazil.

The United States could not view this dispute with indifference. In February, 1895, Congress passed a joint resolution, approving the suggestion made by the President in his message, urging that the question be referred to arbitrators. The purport of the resolution was laid before Great Britain by Ambassador Bayard, but the English authorities still refused to submit to arbitration their asserted right to the territory east of the Schomburgk line. They intimated that the question was wholly between them and Venezuela, or in other words advised the United States to attend to its own business.

The
Monroe
Doctrine
Threat-
ened

The interest of our country in this question lay in the probability that the Monroe Doctrine was likely to be involved. Though this is not a part of the recognized body of international law, it is one of our most cherished principles, and we could never stand idly by while foreign governments were extending their possessions and power on the western hemisphere. There was a lengthy correspondence between England and our Government during the summer and latter part of 1895. On December 17th President Cleveland submitted the correspondence to Congress, accompanying it with a message of so vigorous a character that it electrified the country. He asked for authority from Congress to appoint a Commission to determine the merits of the boundary dispute, in order that the Government should decide its line of action, insisting that if England maintained a



THE VENEZUELA COMMISSIONERS IN SESSION

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TO
—The
Commis-
sion of
Inquiry

wrongful course, the United States should resist "by every means in its power, as a wilful aggression upon its rights and interests, the appropriation by Great Britain of any lands, or the exercise of governmental jurisdiction over any territory, which after investigation we have determined of right belongs to Venezuela."

Congress, as well as the country at large, ardently approved this patriotic language. The sum of \$100,000 was immediately appropriated for the expenses of the Commission of Inquiry. Two days later the Senate unanimously passed the same bill. On the 1st of January, 1896, the President announced the members of the Commission as follows:

David J. Brewer, Republican, associate justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, made president of the Commission.

Richard H. Alvey, Democrat, of Maryland, chief justice of the court of appeals of the District of Columbia.

Andrew D. White, Republican, of New York, ex-president of Cornell University, and ex-minister to Germany and Russia.

Frederick R. Coudert, Democrat, of New York, formerly a member of the counsel of the United States in the Bering Sea arbitration.

Daniel C. Gilman of Maryland, president of Johns Hopkins University, independent in politics, but with Republican "leanings."

In the latter part of January the Commission began regular meetings. Mr. William L. Scruggs, ex-minister from the United States to Venezuela, represented the latter country by appointment as counsel. An immense mass of material in the shape of maps, documents, and old books was placed before the commission, and the researches were vigorously prosecuted.

The
British
Position

The British blue book on the Venezuelan question was laid on the table of the House of Commons on March 6th. This gave the position of Great Britain in the boundary dispute. She insisted that if the basis of strict right was insisted on, she, as successor of the Dutch, was entitled to the territory extending to Barima, including the watersheds of all the rivers of Guiana south of the Orinoco which flow into the Atlantic. England had certainly made out a strong claim, and the decision of the Commission was awaited with anxiety. The belligerent spirit, however, rapidly subsided in both countries, though a wide diversity of sentiment was manifested in Congress.

On January 8th the Washington correspondent of the radical

Chronicle of London proposed in that paper that the dispute should be included in a general plan for arbitration of all questions between Great Britain and the United States which fail of diplomatic settlement. He directed attention to resolutions favoring such an arrangement adopted in Congress on April 4, 1890, responded to by a resolution in Parliament on June 16, 1893.

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The prospect of a war between the two great English-speaking nations was terrifying, and would turn back the hands of progress for years, and indeed be an incalculable calamity to civilization. Numerous "peace meetings," at which the most eminent citizens were present, were held in different cities, and the sentiments expressed were heartily responded to in Great Britain. On February 18th the London *Times* published a plan for a Joint Commission, it being understood unofficially that our Government would accept it if proposed. Not only the *Times* but other papers urged it on the British Government. The following is the plan:

The
Danger
of War

A new Commission to be created by agreement between Great Britain and the United States, consisting of two Englishmen and two Americans, the two Americans probably to be two members of the present Commission;

This new Commission to take up the inquiry, not in order to determine the boundary or draw a divisional line between British Guiana and Venezuela, but to ascertain the facts and to report to both Governments;

The four members to complete the inquiry if unanimous or if a majority of the whole concur;

If they fail to agree, a fifth member, a neutral, to be appointed by the President of the Swiss Republic or some other acceptable personage;

The findings of this Commission upon matters of fact to be binding upon both Governments, and to serve as a basis for subsequent direct negotiations between all parties concerned with a view to agreeing upon the boundary line;

New
Negotia-
tions

Should these direct negotiations fail, the question to be remitted to a tribunal composed, for instance, of the chief justices of England and the United States, with, if necessary, a third neutral member.

The air was full of rumors, and there was a general feeling of unrest on both sides of the Atlantic. The Commission kept steadily at work, but progressed slowly, and our Government carefully refrained

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from interfering with it. In May the Boundary Commission's chief historical expert, Professor George L. Burr, of Cornell University, sailed for Holland to examine the Dutch records relating to the dispute. The supplementary British blue book was expected soon, after which an expert would be sent to Madrid to examine the Spanish archives.

Meanwhile, the British colony in Demerara became impatient, and Venezuela protested against the delay caused by the slow work of the Commission, and declared that the British colonists, encouraged by

officials of the home Government, were penetrating not only the rich gold fields, but the inland valleys, thus expanding the "settled districts" which Lord Salisbury was reluctant to make subject to arbitration.



AMBASSADOR BAYARD

Two questions, one of momentous importance to all nations, steadily forged themselves into the foreground. The first was the settlement of the boundary dispute, and the second and vastly greater was the establishment of a scheme of general arbitration between England and the United States. At the suggestion of Ambassador Bayard, Lord Salisbury empowered Sir Julian Pauncefote,

the British ambassador at Washington, to enter into correspondence with Secretary Olney with the purpose of reaching a clearly defined agreement as a basis of negotiation to constitute a tribunal for the arbitration of the Venezuelan question. On March 5, 1896, the following heads of a suggested treaty were submitted to Secretary Olney by Lord Salisbury through her Majesty's ambassador:

Pro-
posed
Arbitra-
tion

On February 21st Ambassador Bayard suggested to Lord Salisbury that he empower the British ambassador at Washington, Sir Julian Pauncefote, to enter into correspondence with Secretary Olney with a view to reaching a well-defined agreement as a basis of negotiation to constitute a tribunal for the arbitration of the Venezuelan

question. With this request Lord Salisbury complied; and on March 5th he submitted to Secretary Olney through her Majesty's ambassador the heads of a suggested treaty of arbitration. A synopsis of this treaty follows:

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1 *Number of Arbitrators and Method of Appointment*—Her Britannic Majesty and the President of the United States shall each appoint two or more permanent judicial officers for the purposes of this treaty; and, on the appearance of any question which in the judgment of either nation cannot be settled by negotiation, each shall choose one of the said officials as arbitrator, and the two arbitrators shall hear and determine any matter referred to them in accordance with this treaty.

Synopsis
of the
Treaty
Proposed

2 *Provision for Appointment of an Umpire*—Before entering on such arbitration the arbitrators shall elect an umpire whose decision shall be final in all cases where there is disagreement between the arbitrators, whether in interlocutory or final questions.

3 *Kinds of Questions to be Submitted*—Complaints made by the national representatives of one power against the officers of the other; all claims or group of claims amounting to not more than £100,000; all claims for damages or indemnity under this amount; all questions affecting diplomatic or consular privileges; all alleged rights of fishery, access, navigation, or commercial privilege; and all questions referred by special agreement between the two parties, shall come under the operations of this treaty.

4 *A Court of Review*—If, after an award has been reported, either party shall protest against it within three months, the award shall be reviewed by a court composed of three of the judges of the Supreme Court of Great Britain and three of the judges of the Supreme Court of the United States. If this court shall decide by a majority of not less than five to one that the award is just, it shall stand. This court is to review decisions regarding questions of fact or of international law involving territory, territorial rights, sovereignty, or jurisdiction of either power, or any pecuniary claim or group of claims of any kind involving a sum larger than £100,000, when either party protests against the award as stated above.

Work of
the
Court of
Review

5 *Questions Involving National Honor*—Any difference which, in the judgment of either power, materially affects its honor or the integrity of its territory, shall not be referred to arbitration under this treaty except by special agreement.

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6 *A Way of Escape*—Any difference whatever, by agreement between the two powers, may be referred for decision by arbitration as



RICHARD OLNEY

herein provided, with the stipulation that unless accepted by both powers the decision shall not be valid.

In his reply of April 11th, Secretary Olney approved all these stipulations with the exception of those made in Sections 4 and 6. He deemed the provisions of the former not sufficiently broad, and

thought that questions of the nature described in Section 4, and pecuniary claims or groups of claims aggregating a sum larger than £100,000, and all controversies not specially described, be submitted to this board of arbitration, with the provision that before the arbitral tribunal meet, the Parliament of Great Britain or the Congress of the United States shall not declare such questions to involve the national honor or territorial integrity. Should such declaration be made, the question is to be withdrawn from arbitration. The awards were to be final if concurred in by all the arbitrators; if by only a majority, they shall be final unless one of the parties to the arbitration protests that the decision is erroneous in respect of some issue of fact or law. Then, a court consisting of three judges of the Supreme Court of the United States and three judges of the Supreme Court of Great Britain are to decide the question. If this court is equally divided, they shall appoint three learned and impartial jurists to be added to the court, a majority of which, as thus constituted, shall decide questions.

Secretary Olney added that if this amendment proved acceptable to Lord Salisbury, he saw no reason why the pending dispute regarding the Venezuelan boundary should not be included in the treaty, and that if no general arbitration treaty was probable, the Venezuelan boundary question might be used as an experiment in arbitration, whose settlement would probably indicate the lines along which a general scheme for arbitration could be drawn.

Instead of accepting Mr. Olney's suggestion that the Venezuelan question be included in the proposed arbitration treaty, Lord Salisbury suggested that two subjects of Great Britain and two citizens of the United States be appointed to report upon the facts affecting the rights of Spain and Holland at the time when Great Britain acquired British Guiana. This commission having reported, Great Britain and Venezuela should seek to come to an agreement, failing in which, each should appoint a commissioner, and these two should select a third. The decision of the three commissioners was to be final, but it could not include as Venezuelan any territory occupied by British subjects on or before January 1, 1887.

Secretary Olney thought that the last clause was mischievous since it might become the means though which Venezuela would be stripped of rightful possessions merely because British colonists had been erroneously taught to regard such possessions as their own. The Secretary advised that the clause be stricken out.

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Other
Provi-
sions

Points of
Differ-
ence

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In objecting to the provisions of Section 6, Secretary Olney stated that both the English and American methods of arbitration leave out of consideration questions involving national honor and territorial integrity, but the British method allows the disputants to determine, after learning the result, whether or not they will be bound by it, while the American plan binds both parties to abide by the result whatever it may be.

Good
Temper
on Both
Sides

The exceeding good temper displayed by both sides in this controversy increased the confidence that a satisfactory issue, honorable to both parties, would be reached. That there was the best ground for this hope was proven by the speech of Lord Salisbury at the lord mayor's banquet in London, November 9, 1896, and by the additional correspondence soon afterwards published. The most significant words of Lord Salisbury were:

"You are aware that in the discussion had with the United States on behalf of their friends in Venezuela, our question has not been whether there should be arbitration, but whether arbitration should have unrestricted application; and we have always claimed that those who, apart from historic right, had the right which attaches to established settlements, should be excluded from arbitration. Our difficulty for months has been to define the settled districts; and the solution has, I think, come from the suggestion of the Government of the United States, that we should treat our colonial empire as we treat individuals; that the same lapse of time which protects the latter in civic life from having their title questioned, should similarly protect an English colony; but, beyond that, when a lapse could not be claimed, there should be an examination of title, and all the equity demanded in regard thereto should be granted. I do not believe I am using unduly sanguine words when I declare my belief that this has brought the controversy to an end."

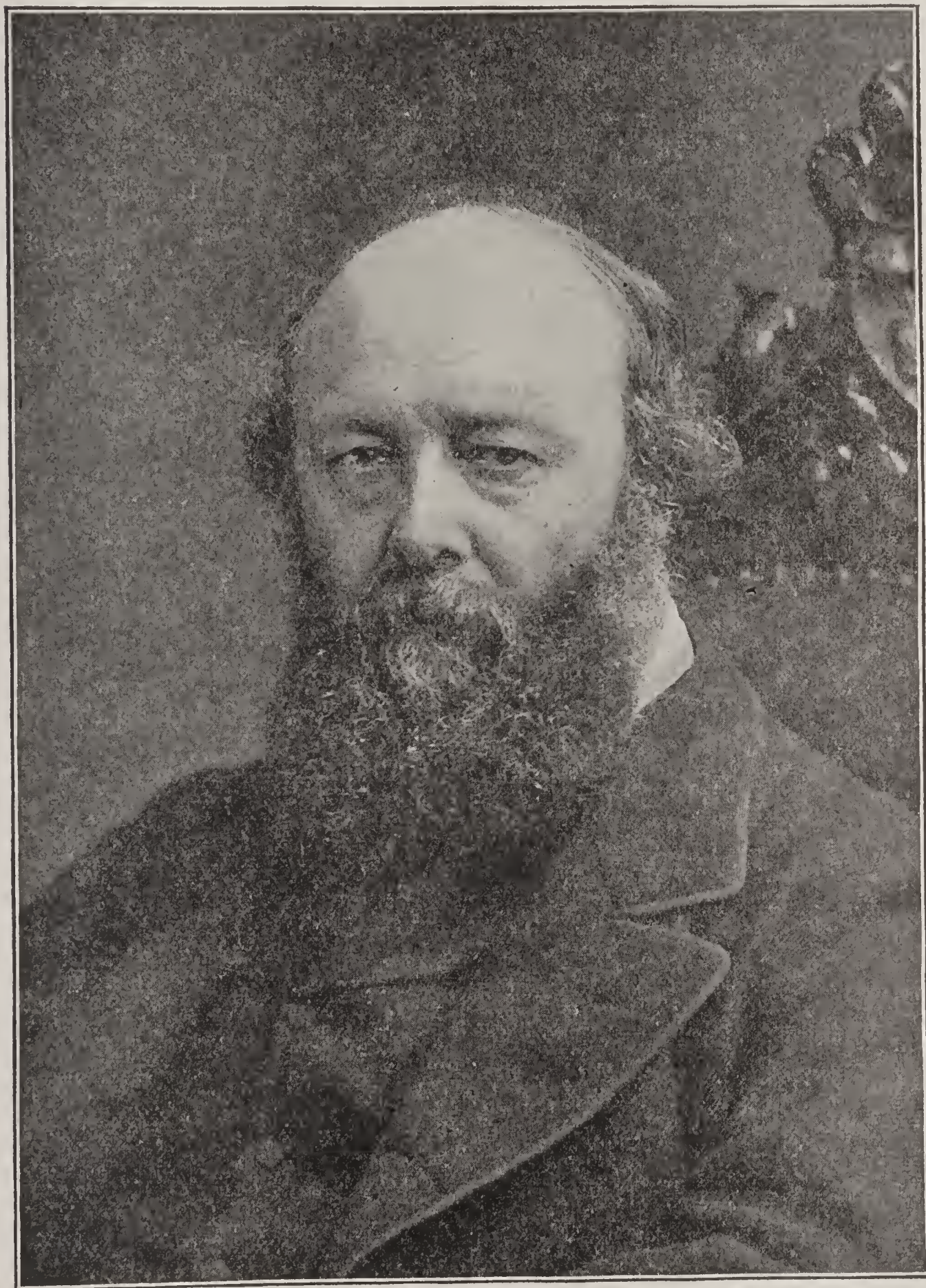
Through this maze of diplomacy, the question finally narrowed down to the question of how long must a settler have held a title to a given possession to exempt it from the process of arbitration. The period of fifty years was finally fixed upon as making a claim indisputably valid.

Little
Work for
the Com-
mission

Inasmuch as the real business of the Commission had been virtually taken out of its hand, it decided, though continuing its labors, not to formulate any decision, in the hope that a friendly and just settlement would render such a decision unnecessary.

Sir Julian Pauncefote returned early in November from a visit to England, bringing with him the treaty, the terms of which were

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LORD SALISBURY

signed by him and Secretary Olney on November 12th and were published December 19th. They are as follows :

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—Terms of
the
Treaty

First An arbitral tribunal shall be immediately appointed to determine the boundary line between the colony of British Guiana and the republic of Venezuela.

Second The tribunal shall consist of two members nominated by the judges of the Supreme Court of the United States and two members nominated by the judges of the British Supreme Court of justice, and by a fifth jurist selected by the four persons so nominated, or, in the event of their failure to agree within three months of their nomination, selected by his Majesty the King of Sweden and Norway. The person so selected shall be president of the tribunal. The persons nominated by the judges of the Supreme Court of the United States and of the British Supreme Court of justice respectively, may be judges of either of said courts.

Third The tribunal shall investigate and ascertain the extent of the territories belonging to, or that might lawfully be claimed by, the United Netherlands or by the kingdom of Spain respectively at the time of the acquisition by Great Britain of the colony of British Guiana, and shall determine the boundary line between the colony of British Guiana and the republic of Venezuela.

Fourth In deciding the matters submitted, the arbitrators shall ascertain all the facts which they deem necessary to a decision of the controversy, and shall be governed by the following rules agreed upon by the high contracting parties as rules to be taken as applicable to the case, and by such principles of international law not inconsistent therewith as the arbitrators shall determine to be applicable to the case.

RULES

Rules of
the
Treaty

(a) Adverse holding or prescription during a period of fifty years shall make a good title. The arbitrators may deem exclusive political control of a district as well as actual settlement thereof sufficient to constitute adverse holding, or to make title by prescription.

(b) The arbitrators may recognize and give effect to rights and claims on any principles of international law which the arbitrators may deem to be applicable to the case, and which are not in contravention of the foregoing rule.

(c) In determining the boundary line, if territory of one party be found by the tribunal to have been at the date of this treaty in the occupation of the subjects or citizens of the other party, such effec-

shall be given to such occupation as reason, justice, the principles of international law, and the equities of the case shall, in the opinion of the tribunal, require.

This document, having been signed, was forwarded to President Crespo of Venezuela, who attached his signature early in December. Considerable opposition developed in Venezuela on the ground that she was not to be represented on the commission. This opposition, however, was mainly due to ignorance, and disappeared when the agreement was fully understood. Venezuela wisely decided that she had in the great American republic a friend whom she could safely trust.

The Anglo-Venezuelan arbitration treaty was signed by Sir Julian Pauncefote, the British ambassador, and Señor José Andrade, the Venezuelan minister, in the office of Secretary Olney at the State department, on the afternoon of February 2, 1897. Thus terminated a controversy that has lasted nearly a century, and diplomatic relations that had been suspended for ten years were resumed between the two countries.

The signing of this treaty virtually dissolved the Venezuelan boundary commission, though its formal dissolution did not take place until President Brewer was notified by Secretary Olney that the purposes for which it was organized had been made null and void by the signing of the treaty.

In addition to the four articles of the treaty already given, it contained the following additional conditions :

ARTICLE V

“The arbitrators shall meet at Paris within sixty days after the delivery of the printed arguments mentioned in Article VIII., and shall proceed impartially and carefully to examine and decide the questions that have or shall be laid before them as herein provided on the part of the Governments of her Britannic Majesty and the United States of Venezuela respectively; provided always that the arbitrators may, if they shall think fit, hold their meetings or any of them at any other place which they may determine.

“All questions considered by the tribunal, including the final decision, shall be determined by a majority of all the arbitrators.

“Each of the high contracting parties shall name one person as its

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Treaty
Signed
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agent to attend the tribunal and to represent it generally in all matters connected with the tribunal.

ARTICLE VI

“The printed case of each of the two parties, accompanied by the documents, official correspondence, and other evidence on which each relies, shall be delivered in duplicate to each of the arbitrators and to the agent of the other party as soon as may be after the appointment of the members of the tribunal, but within a period not exceeding eight months from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty.

ARTICLE VII

“Within four months after the delivery on both sides of the printed case either party may in like manner deliver in duplicate to each of the said arbitrators, and to the agent of the other party, a counter case and additional documents, correspondence, and evidence in reply to the case, documents, correspondence, and evidence so presented by the other party.

“If in the case submitted to the arbitrators, either party shall have specified or alluded to any report or document in its own exclusive possession without annexing a copy, such party shall be bound, if the other party thinks proper to apply for it, to furnish that party with a copy thereof, and either party may call upon the other, through the arbitrators, to produce the originals or certified copies of any papers adduced as evidence, giving in each instance notice thereof within thirty days after delivery of the case; and the original or copy so requested shall be delivered as soon as may be, and within a period not exceeding forty days after receipt of notice.

ARTICLE VIII

“It shall be the duty of the agent of each party, within three months after the expiration of the time limited for the delivery of the counter case on both sides, to deliver in duplicate to each of the said arbitrators and to the agent of the other party a printed argument showing the points and referring to the evidence upon which his Government relies, and either party may also support the same before the arbitrators by oral argument of counsel; and the arbitrators may,

if they desire further elucidation with regard to any point, require a written or printed statement or argument or oral argument by counsel upon it; but in such case the other party shall be entitled to reply either orally or in writing, as the case may be.

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ARTICLE IX

“The arbitrators may, for any cause deemed by them sufficient, enlarge either of the periods fixed by articles VI., VII., and VIII. by the allowance of thirty days additional.

ARTICLE X

“The decision of the tribunal shall, if possible, be made within three months from the close of the argument on both sides.

“It shall be made in writing and dated, and shall be signed by the arbitrators who may assent to it.

“The decision shall be in duplicate, one copy whereof shall be delivered to the agent of the United States of Venezuela for his Government.

ARTICLE XI

“The arbitrators shall keep an accurate record of their proceedings, and may appoint and employ the necessary officers to assist them.

ARTICLE XII

“Each Government shall pay its own agent and provide for the proper remuneration of the counsel employed by it and of the arbitrators appointed by it or in its behalf, and for the expense of preparing and submitting its case to the tribunal. All other expenses connected with the arbitration shall be defrayed by the two Governments in equal moieties.

ARTICLE XIII

“The high contracting parties engage to consider the result of the proceedings of the Tribunal of Arbitration as a full, perfect, and final settlement of all the questions referred to the arbitrators.

ARTICLE XIV

“The present treaty should be duly ratified by her Britannic

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Majesty and by the President of the United States of Venezuela by and with the approval of the Congress thereof; and the ratifications shall be exchanged in London or in Washington within six months from the date hereof.

“In faith whereof, we, the respective plenipotentiaries, have signed this treaty and have hereunto affixed our seals.

“Done in duplicate at Washington, the second day of February, one thousand eight hundred and ninety-seven.

“JULIAN PAUNCEFOTE,

“JOSÉ ANDRADE.”

Presi-
dential
Nomi-
nees

The Presidential election of 1896 was an extraordinary one. By the 3d of September there were eight tickets in the field. Some of these were duplications, but they were nominated by separate national conventions duly called. In the order of nomination the tickets were as follows:

Prohibitionist—Nominated at Pittsburg, May 27th:

For President—Joshua Levering, of Maryland.

For Vice-President—Hale Johnson, of Illinois.

National Party—Free-Silver Woman-Suffrage offshoot of the regular Prohibitionists, nominated at Pittsburg, May 28th:

For President—Charles E. Bentley, of Nebraska.

For Vice-President—James Haywood Southgate, of North Carolina.

Republican—Nominated at St. Louis, June 18th:

For President—William McKinley, of Ohio.

For Vice-President—Garret Augustus Hobart, of New Jersey.

Socialist-Labor—Nominated at New York, July 4th:

For President—Charles H. Matchett, of New York.

For Vice-President—Matthew Maguire, of New Jersey.

Democratic Party—Nominated at Chicago, July 10th and 11th:

For President—William Jennings Bryan, of Nebraska.

For Vice-President—Arthur Sewall, of Maine.

Silverites—Nominated at St. Louis, July 24th:

For President—William Jennings Bryan, of Nebraska.

For Vice-President—Arthur Sewall, of Maine.

People's Party—Nominated at St. Louis, July 24th and 25th:

For President—William Jennings Bryan, of Nebraska.

For Vice-President—Thomas E. Watson, of Georgia.

National Democratic Party—Nominated at Indianapolis, September 3d :

For President—John McAuley Palmer, of Illinois.

For Vice-President—Simon Bolivar Buckner, of Kentucky.

The Democratic platform demanded the free coinage of silver, while the Republican platform opposed free coinage and insisted on preserving the existing gold standard. The contest lay between these two leading parties of the country.*

For weeks before the national convention in St. Louis, June 16th, the tide set so strongly in favor of William McKinley for President that all doubt disappeared, and his nomination took place on the first ballot, Garret A. Hobart receiving the nomination for Vice-President on the same ballot. When the gold and silver plank was adopted, thirty-three silver delegates, led by Senator Teller, of Colorado, formally withdrew from the convention.

The National Democratic Convention was held in Chicago, July 11th. It became apparent before that date that most of the delegates would favor the free coinage of silver, despite the strenuous exertions of the Gold Democrats from the East. President Cleveland, on the 16th of June, issued an appeal to the Democrats against free silver, and said he wished to be only a private in the ranks of the party. The free-silver delegates in the convention would listen to no compromise and concede no favors. Their men were put to the front

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* The expression “ 16 to 1 ” has been heard probably oftener than it was understood. Director Preston of the Mint, during the campaign of 1896, issued the following statement of the coinage ratio between gold and silver :

“ All standard silver dollars coined by the mints of the United States since the passage of the act of January 18, 1837, have been coined in the ratio of 1 to 15.9884—generally called the ratio of 1 to 16, 15.9884 being very nearly 16. Still, to reach accurate results, the former and not the latter figure must be used in calculation. The ratio is obtained in this way : The silver dollar contains 371.25 grains of pure silver and the gold dollar 23.22 grains of pure gold. If you divide 371.25 by 23.22 you will get the ratio of weight between a gold dollar and a silver dollar, that is, 15.9884.

“ It is true that to be on a par with gold, silver would (at our ratio) be worth \$1.2929. The reason is this : A gold dollar contains 23.22 grains of pure gold. In an ounce, or 480 grains of gold, there are as many dollars as 23.22 is contained times in 480 grains. If you divide 480 by 23.22 you get \$20.67, the number of dollars that can be coined out of an ounce of pure gold ; in other words, the money equivalent of one ounce of gold or of 15.9884 ounces of silver at the ratio of 1 to 15.9884. Now, if 15.9884 ounces of silver be worth \$20.67, one ounce will be worth \$1.2929, as you can prove by simple division. The same result is obtained by dividing 480 grains, or one ounce, of silver by 371.25, the number of grains of pure silver in a standard silver dollar, at the ratio of 1 to 15.9884, which gives \$1.2929.

“ Sixteen ounces of pure silver will coin a little more than one ounce of gold ; 15.9884

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Nomina-
tion of
Bryan

both in the temporary and the permanent organization, and on the fifth ballot, William Jennings Bryan, of Nebraska, a Populist and an ardent advocate of free silver, was nominated. Then, singularly enough, the convention nominated Arthur Sewall, of Maine, a believer in the gold standard, and the president of a national bank, for Vice-President.

The national convention of the Populists or People's Party was held in St. Louis, July 22d-25th. The convention indorsed Bryan's nomination, but refused to accept that of Sewall, and named instead Thomas E. Watson, of Georgia, an uncompromising Populist. This was done in the face of Bryan's threat not to accept the Populists' nomination unless Sewall was also named. The threat, however, was not carried out.

Nomi-
nees of
the
"Sound-
Money
Demo-
crats"

The capture of the Democratic convention by the silver men caused so many defections that a convention of "Sound Money Democrats" was held in Indianapolis, September 2d, at which appeared delegates from all the States except Idaho, Nevada, Utah, and Wyoming. Without opposition the convention nominated Senator John M. Palmer, of Illinois, for President, and General Simon B. Buckner, of Kentucky, for Vice-President. The platform adopted condemned the Chicago platform as undemocratic and denounced alike the financial doctrine therein set forth and the tariff policy of the Republicans. It favored tariff for revenue only, the single gold standard, a bank currency under governmental supervision, international arbitration, and the maintenance intact of the independence and authority of the Supreme Court.

The campaign was a stirring one. Had the election taken place in September or October, it is generally believed that Bryan would have been successful. He made a vigorous canvass for himself, travelling rapidly through different parts of the country, and addressing immense crowds several times daily and again at night. Mr. McKinley remained at his home in Canton, Ohio, where he received thousands

ounces of silver will coin exactly the same amount of money as one ounce of gold, that is, \$20.67. You can prove this by dividing 15.9884 ounces by 371.25 grains. The operation is as follows: 15.9884 multiplied by 480, divided by 371.25, equals \$20.674. It is not true that sixteen ounces of silver will coin only \$16.80 at the ratio of 1 to 16.

"As will be seen above, one ounce of silver will coin \$1.2929. Multiplying \$1.2929 by 16 gives \$20.68. You can make the same result in another way: Sixteen ounces troy, or 7,680 grains, divided by 371.25 gives the number of silver dollars that can be coined out of sixteen ounces of silver; 7,680 divided by 371.25 equals \$20.68."

of visitors, and made numerous addresses, all of which were in good taste, and served to strengthen the cause for which he stood.

The election on November 3d gave McKinley 271 electoral votes and Bryan 176; majority for McKinley, 95.

On the popular vote, McKinley received 7,101,439, and Bryan 6,503,165; majority for McKinley, 598,274.

The votes cast for Palmer and Buckner were insignificant, amounting only to 133,554.

While it is a fact that a change of 25,000 votes rightly distributed would have resulted in the election of Mr. Bryan, yet the election was by no means as close as this fact would seem to indicate, for Major McKinley was a majority President for the first time since 1872.

In 1856, the vote of Fremont and Fillmore exceeded that of Buchanan by 386,760, while in 1860 Lincoln had less than forty per cent. of the popular vote. Four years later his plurality over McClellan was 407,342, there being no election of course in the Southern States. In 1868, a number of the Southern States still not participating, Grant's majority over Seymour was 305,458. In 1872, the opposition to Grant went to pieces, and his majority over Greeley was 762,999, several of the unreconstructed States taking no part in the election.

In 1876, Tilden's majority over Hayes was 252,042, with a popular majority of 145,711 over all the other candidates. In 1880 Garfield had a popular majority of 9,464 over Hancock, but the united opposition vote was 311,115 more than Garfield's total. In 1884, Cleveland's plurality over Blaine was 23,005, but it was 317,638 less than the total opposition. It would have required a change of less than 600 votes to have made Blaine President. In 1888, Cleveland was defeated, although he had 94,601 more votes than Harrison, against whom the popular majority was 500,124. In 1892, Cleveland had 379,025 more votes than Harrison, but the combined opposition exceeded the Cleveland vote by 969,205.

The States carried by McKinley contain more than two-thirds of our population and almost three-quarters of our wealth. The victory was of the most decisive character.

When Mr. Cleveland became President for the second time, the Democratic party and Congress were his ardent supporters. When he left the White House, Congress was opposed to him, and his party

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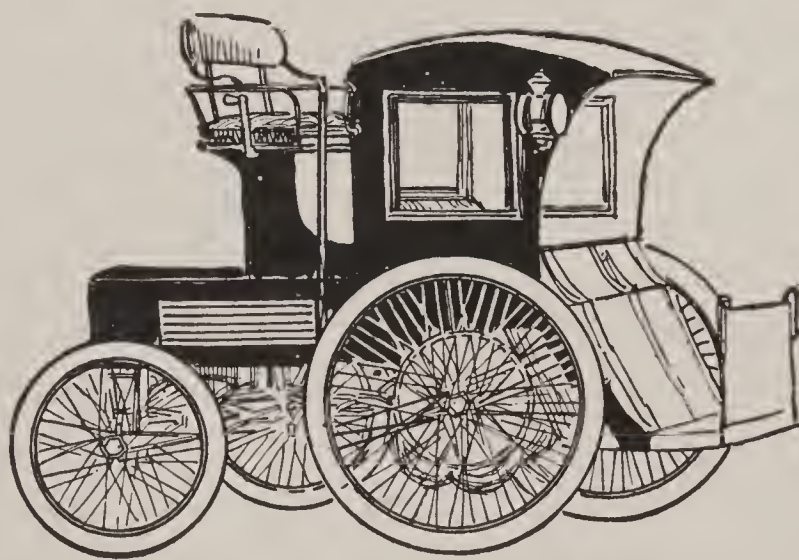
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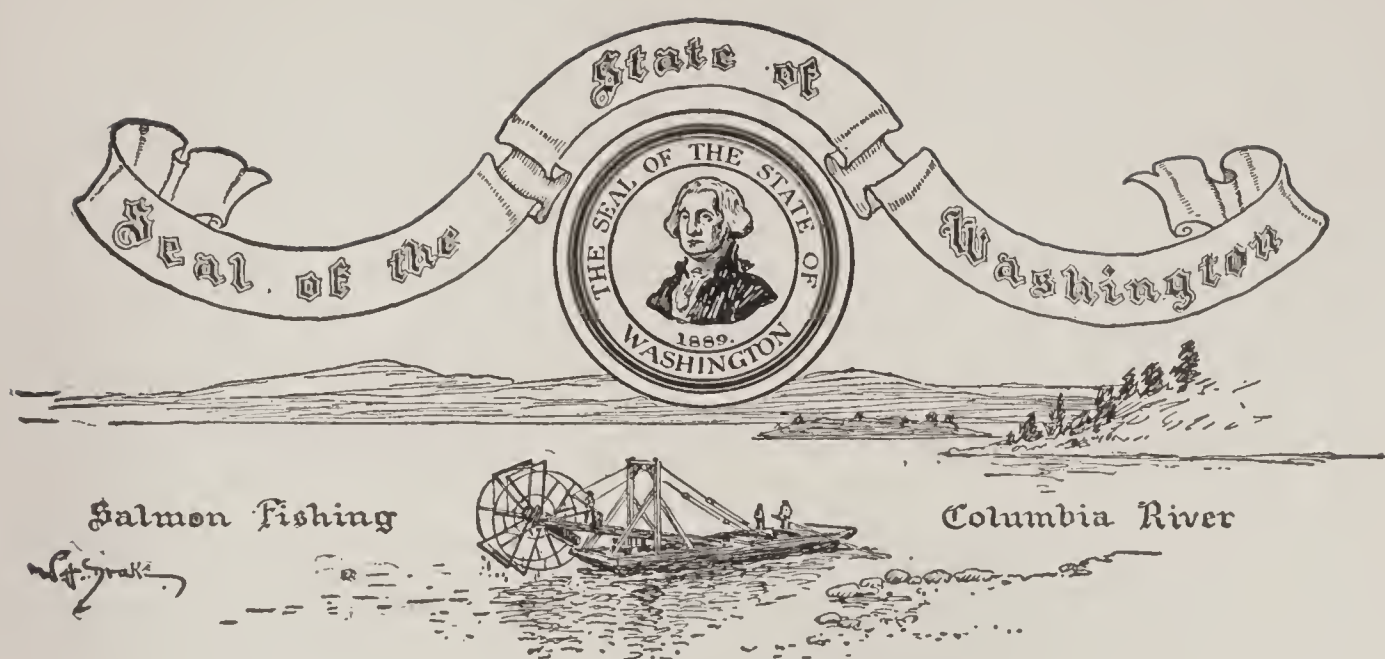
Analysis
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Election

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of Presi-
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was disorganized. Mr. Cleveland's course was always patriotic, and he did all that was possible to maintain the financial credit of the nation and to uphold the honor and good name of his country at home and abroad. His call for an extra session of Congress was a lusty blow to save the United States from the ruin threatened by the Silver Purchase Law. His first regular message was a powerful plea for sound money, public economy, a wise tariff revision, and a safe and honorable foreign policy. Though his party failed to rally to his support, his loyalty to principle was never shaken, and all right-thinking men will honor the President who, while he made mistakes, as did his predecessors, yet stood firmly against every attack upon the financial honor of the country, and gave his unceasing effort towards preserving peace and the good name of the United States among the nations of the world.





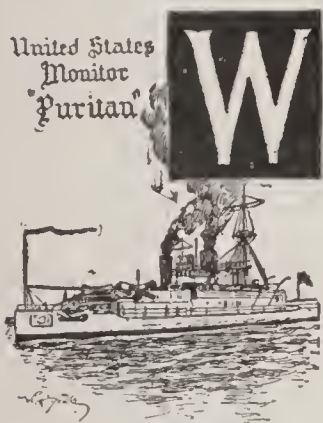
CHAPTER XCI

M'KINLEY'S ADMINISTRATION—1897

[*Authorities:* Many influential citizens of our republic hoped for the ratification of the Arbitration Treaty negotiated between the English Government and Mr. Cleveland's Secretary of State, Mr. Olney. The author, believing it to be a matter of great importance to both countries, has given it much prominence in this chapter. It has, however, been rejected by our Senate. The principal difficulty in matters of diplomacy between this country and England is that the predominant considerations with statesmen of that country are territorial aggrandizement and commercial supremacy. Questions of equity, ethics, and international law become secondary in the face of these considerations. England is still tainted in her statesmanship with the old feudal instinct to secure by brute force that from the attainment of which she would be debarred by the operation of the laws of political equity. We read much about the isolation of that country from the rest of Europe, and it starts the question whether there is not for nations, as for individuals, a day of reckoning for wrong-doing and tyranny and selfishness.

The author is indebted for much of the history in this chapter to the biographies of the political candidates, official records and documents, Congressman Nelson Dingley, Jr., Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee of the Fifty-fifth Congress, "Current History," and many contemporary publications.]

United States
Monitor
"Puritan"



WILLIAM McKINLEY, twenty-fifth President of the United States, was born at Niles, Trumbull County, O., January 29, 1843, so that he was in his fifty-fifth year, when he assumed his exalted office. His ancestors were Scotch, and were early conspicuous for their valor and devotion to principle. About the middle of the eighteenth century two brothers, James and William, came to this country. James settled in what is now the town of York, in Southern Pennsylvania, where he married and sent his son David to fight under Washington in the War for Independence. Returning to Pennsylvania after the struggle, David lived there until some years after the War of 1812, when he joined the great western tide and

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removed to the country beyond the Ohio River, settling in the region now known as Columbiana County, Ohio. There he founded the "Buckeye" branch of the McKinley clan. He married Mary Rose, whose first child was William, father of the subject of this sketch.

The
McKin-
leys

The elder McKinley remained in Eastern Ohio and was one of the pioneers of the iron business in that region, with foundries at Fairfield, New Wilmington, and other places. To them were born eight children. The house in which the President first saw the light is still standing on one of the streets of Niles. It is a frame structure, two stories high, and the former parlor is now a grocery store. From the vine-covered porch the statesman has made many addresses to the proud citizens of his native town.

Youth of
McKin-
ley

The parents of William McKinley were neither poor nor rich. He knew nothing of grinding poverty nor of affluence. He was observant of mind and robust of body, fond of outdoor sports, and a genial companion. One of the old residents refers to him as a "black-haired, grave-faced, but robust and manly little chap," who attended for a few years the village school at Niles. The parents moved to Poland, in Mahoning, the county between Trumbull and Columbiana, in order that the children might enjoy the advantages of a high school or academy in that town. William showed himself a thorough rather than a showy student, with a leaning towards oratory and argument. He was president for some time of the debating club. It is related that having purchased a gorgeous carpet for the floor of the room in which the stirring debates were held, all the boys sat in their stocking feet at the first meeting, in order not to soil the precious fabric, President McKinley setting the example. The boys were afterwards furnished with slippers knit and presented by the girl members.

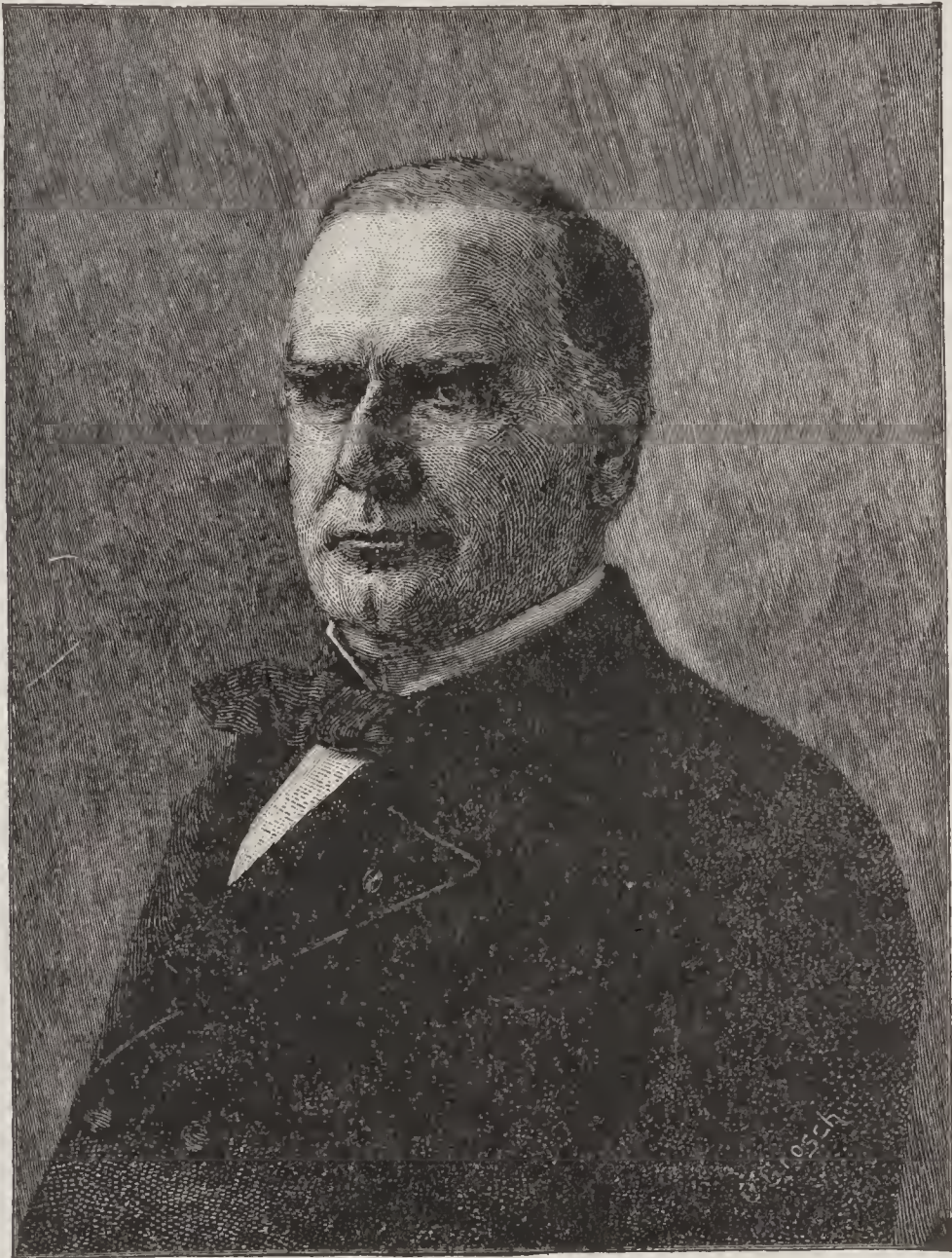
McKinley prepared for college, and, at the age of sixteen, was matriculated at Allegheny College, Meadville, Pa., but had no more than fairly started upon his studies when he fell ill and was compelled to return home. Then his father's resources were crippled, and it became necessary for the son partially to support himself. He cheerfully took up teaching in a district school near Poland. His salary was \$25 a month, and he was obliged to "board around." Most of the time, however, he lived at home, walking several miles daily to and from school. His purpose was to save

enough money to complete his college education, but another destiny awaited him.

He was eighteen years old, and engaged in his school, when Fort Sumter was fired upon. Among the first to answer the call of President Lincoln for volunteers was young McKinley, who never felt prouder than when General Fremont, after thumping his chest and looking into his bright eyes, said, "You'll do." He was a member

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PRESIDENT McKINLEY

of Company E, of the Twenty-third Ohio Regiment, of which W. S. Rosecrans was colonel, Stanley Matthews lieutenant-colonel, and Rutherford B. Hayes major. Thus that famous fighting regiment had the honor of producing two Presidents and a Senator of the United States, afterwards eminent as a Justice of the Supreme Court.

It was genuine patriotism that made a soldier of the boy school-teacher. For fourteen months he carried a musket, attaining the rank

McKin-
ley's Pa-
triotism

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of sergeant, April 15, 1862. Many years afterwards, when governor of Ohio, he referred to that period in these words:

“I always look back with pleasure upon those fourteen months in which I served in the ranks. They taught me a great deal. I was but a schoolboy when I went into the army, and that first year was a formative period of my life, during which I learned much of men and affairs. I have always been glad that I entered the service as a private and served those months in that capacity.”

A Brave
Soldier

There was no more popular or braver man in the regiment than he. He was obedient to his superior officers, and a genial and generous comrade. Nor did the regiment have any lack of fighting. Within six weeks after leaving Columbus, the soldiers were in battle at Carnifex Ferry, where they chased the Confederates back and forth through the mountains, were drenched by incessant rains, suffered for food, and met the roughest kind of campaigning. But the fine body stood it admirably, and was soon ordered to Washington, where it was made a part of the Army of the Potomac, then under the command of McClellan.

Antietam ranks as the bloodiest battle of the Civil War. It was there that McKinley conducted himself like a hero, and from which he emerged with a lieutenant's sword by his side. There was never a more deserved promotion. After Antietam, the lieutenant had the hottest and most rapid sort of work in the West Virginia mountains, speedily returning to Pennsylvania and then back again. One day the regiment breakfasted in Pennsylvania, ate dinner in Maryland, and partook of supper in Virginia. The military career of McKinley has thus been summarized:

Military
Services
of Mc-
Kinley

On September 24, 1862, he was commissioned second-lieutenant of Company D. Five months afterwards he became first-lieutenant of Company E, and on July 25, 1864, he had risen to be captain of Company G. Every promotion was well earned. However, no sooner had he been commissioned than his value as an officer was recognized, and three months after receiving his first commission he was detailed as aide-de-camp on the staff of Gen. Rutherford B. Hayes. From that time until the close of the war he served continually as a staff officer, being at different times on the staffs of Gens. S. S. Carroll, George Crook, afterwards the famous Indian fighter, and Winfield S. Hancock, the superb—all of these men famous for fighting qualities.

He was breveted major on the recommendation of General Sheridan for distinguished and gallant conduct at Cedar Creek and Fisher's Hill.

With his regiment, or while on staff duty, he fought in West Virginia, in the Army of the Potomac under McClellan, and in the Shenandoah Valley under Sheridan. He was in all the early fights in West Virginia, at South Mountain and Antietam, receiving his shoulder-straps one week after that last-named bloody battle, and exchanging his musket for the sword. His first battle was at Carnifex Ferry, W. Va., September 10, 1861. For four long years he fought in every battle and skirmish, until the very end, doing his whole duty, gathering honors and adding to his fame as a soldier, fearless and without reproach, fighting at Townsend's Ferry, November 6th; at Laurel Hill, November 12th; Camp Creek, May 1, 1862; New River, May 6th; Pack's Ferry, New River, August 6th; in support of Pope's army, August 15th; battle of South Mountain, September 14th; Antietam, September 16th and 17th; Cloyd's Mountain, May 9, 1864; Buffalo Gap, June 6th; Lexington, June 10th; Otter Creek, June 16th; Lynchburg, June 17th; Liberty, June 19th; Buford Gap, June 20th; Salem, June 21st; Sweet Sulphur Springs, June 25th; in the campaign against Early, July 14th to November 28th; skirmish at Cabletown, July 19th; fight at Snicker's Ferry, July 21st; Winchester and Kernstown, July 23d and 24th; Martinsburg, July 25th; Berryville, August 10th; Halltown, August 22d; Berryville, September 3d, where his horse was shot under him; battle of Winchester, September 19th; Fisher's Hill, September 22d; skirmish at New Market, October 7th; Cedar Creek, October 13th; battle of Cedar Creek, October 19th—in all, more than thirty battles and skirmishes—in the very front, from the beginning to the end; from the first shot until the very last—mustered out July 26, 1865, after more than four years of continuous service, never missing a day's duty or a fight. He was but twenty-two years of age even then, yet a veteran of thirty engagements, distinguished among the bravest of the brave in the greatest war the world has ever seen—as a private soldier, knowing how to follow and obey; as an officer, how to lead and command.

Honored and breveted by the fiery Sheridan, when, after his ride from Winchester town, he came on the field and found Captain Mc-

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In
Virginia

A Young
Veteran

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Honored
by His
Super-
riors

Kinley in the storm of the battle calmly rallying the disordered troops and facing them to the front.

Gen. George Crook says: "I have the honor to earnestly recommend Capt. William McKinley, Twenty-Third Ohio Infantry, for appointment to a higher grade than his present rank for bravery, gallantry, soldierly conduct, and distinguished services during the campaigns of West Virginia and the Shenandoah Valley."

Gen. Philip H. Sheridan, "the whirlwind with spurs," as Hancock so aptly named him, forwarded the recommendation of General Crook with the following indorsement:

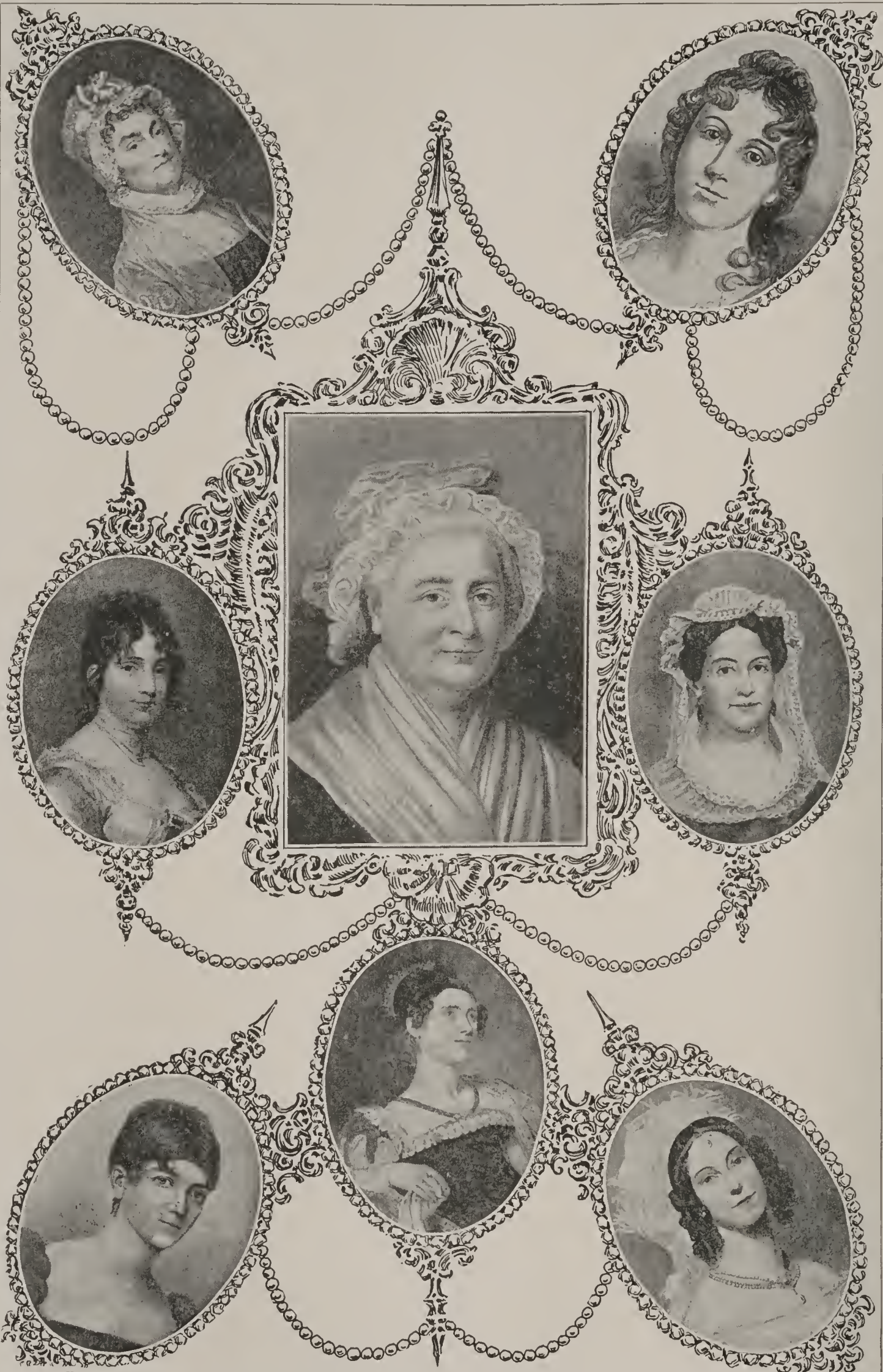
"HEADQUARTERS MIDDLE MILITARY DIVISION, February 1, 1865. —Respectfully forwarded to the Adjutant-General of the Army approved. The appointment recommended is well deserved."

The recommendations of Generals Crook and Sheridan were indorsed and approved by Lieutenant-General Grant, and the Private McKinley of 1861 came home with the leaves of a major on his shoulder-straps.

Peace had come, and the young veteran had to decide upon his future course. He would have loved to return to college, but lacked the means. So he took up the study of law in the office of Judge Charles E. Glidden, at Canton, and afterwards entered the well-known law-school at Albany, N. Y. He was graduated from this institution and admitted to the bar in 1867. He began practice in Canton, where in due time he reaped the reward of thorough preparation, brilliant ability, and conscientious devotion to his work. He had shown great talent as a public speaker, and it was inevitable that he should become interested in politics. Stark County, where he opened his office, was considered hopelessly Democratic, so that when McKinley was nominated by the Republicans for district-attorney, it was looked upon as an empty honor. But he threw his whole energies into the canvass, and, to the amazement of everybody except himself, was successful. He was renominated at the end of his term of two years, but failed by a slender vote in a county where the majority had always been overwhelming in the opposite direction.

McKin-
ley's
Political
Strength

McKinley's inherent strength was so unquestionable that in 1876 he was nominated and easily elected to Congress. Then the Democrats, having possession of the legislature, gerrymandered the State so that, when he was nominated for a second term, it was in a district in which the normal Democratic majority was about eighteen



Mrs. Abigail Adams
Mrs. Madison
Mrs. Monroe

Martha Washington
Mrs. J. Q. Adams

Mrs. Randolph
Mrs. Jackson
Mrs. Van Buren

hundred. Nevertheless, he was elected by thirteen hundred majority, and was returned for a third and a fourth term. The Democrats regained possession of the legislature again in 1884, and once more gerrymandered the State, with the express purpose of keeping McKinley at home. His district was set down as certain to give him an adverse vote by fifteen hundred, but when he ran the fifth time his majority was over two thousand. Again the State was gerrymandered, and this time his opponents succeeded in defeating him, it being the only time such a thing has occurred during his political career.

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His only
Defeat

McKinley was a member of Congress, therefore, for seven terms covering fourteen years, during which he was noted for his clear grasp of national questions and his strong sympathies with the people. He was naturally interested in all matters relating to the tariff, and his first speech in Congress was in favor of a protective tariff. It was during his last year, 1890, that the famous tariff measure bearing his name was passed.

One of his admirable traits is his loyalty to his friends. Twice he could have received the presidential nomination, but having pledged his word to other candidates, nothing could dissuade him to desert them, even when their candidature was hopeless. It was only fitting, therefore, that the tide, when it did set in for him, did so with a might that was resistless.

It was in 1890 that he met defeat through the gerrymandering of the State. The Republicans nominated him by acclamation for governor, and in one of the most hotly contested elections ever known, he was successful by more than eighty thousand majority. His administration was worthy of the man. His nomination for the Presidency in 1896 has been related in the preceding chapter.

Our notice of President McKinley would be incomplete without a tribute to him as a man and a husband. It is said that once when a clergyman was asked whether he believed himself a truly religious person, he answered: "Ask my wife." On January 25, 1871, Mr. McKinley was married to Ida Saxton, daughter of James Saxton, a banker of Canton. Two daughters were born to them, but both died in their infancy. Since the affliction the mother has been an invalid, sustained by the untiring devotion of her husband. The two are as tender lovers to-day as during their honeymoon, the reverence and affection of the husband for the wife being equalled only by that for

As a
Man and
Husband

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The
Vice-
Presi-
dent

his mother, who had passed far beyond fourscore when her son was elected to the most exalted office in the gift of his countrymen. Fortunate indeed is that nation who is not forced to elevate at times, as in Europe, the most vicious, depraved, and incompetent of men and women as its rulers, but can select such as are models of integrity, manliness, chivalry, patriotism, honor, and all the virtues that adorn mankind.

Garret Augustus Hobart was born in Monmouth County, N. J., in 1844, and spent his boyhood amid the breezes of the Altantic, acquiring a sturdy strength and rugged physique that give him a youthful appearance and have stood him well in the active work of his manhood. He received a common-school education, proving himself by far the brightest boy among his classmates. He was graduated from Rutgers College at the age of nineteen, and received the degree of A.M., to which some years later the same college added that of LL.D.

Mr. Hobart studied law, and was admitted to the bar as an attorney in 1864 and as a counsellor in 1869. His brilliant mental qualities, his personal magnetism, and his fearless devotion to principle made him remarkably successful from the first. He had selected Paterson as his home, and in May, 1871, the board of aldermen of that city appointed him city counsel, and the following year he became counsel of the county board of freeholders. In 1872 he was elected to the house of assembly, where his ability attracted state attention. He was returned the following year without the slightest effort on his part, and was unanimously elected speaker. He presided with rare grace and skill, holding that body, which is sometimes disposed to be unruly, in perfect control. He declined a re-nomination in order to give his attention to his profession, but in 1877 was persuaded to accept the senatorial nomination and was elected by a large majority.

A Poli-
tical
Power

In 1884, Mr. Hobart was the caucus nominee for United States Senator, but his party was in the minority, and the honor went by a small majority to his opponent. He had become a leader among the Republicans, with a reputation that was assuming national proportions. His judgment was rarely at fault, and his aggressiveness is always with him. In 1884 he was selected as a member of the Republican National Committee from New Jersey.

He continued a powerful factor in the politics of his native State,

and did more than any other man to secure the nomination and election of his intimate friend, the able John W. Griggs, as governor of the State in 1895, by one of the largest majorities ever given to a

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GARRET AUGUSTUS HOBART

gubernatorial candidate. Mr. Hobart assumed the duties of chairman of the executive committee, and worked unflaggingly until Mr. Griggs was elected by nearly thirty thousand plurality.

It is appropriate, in closing this sketch, to quote a portion of the eloquent speech of Judge J. Frank Fort, of Newark, N. J., who placed Mr. Hobart in nomination for the Vice-Presidency:

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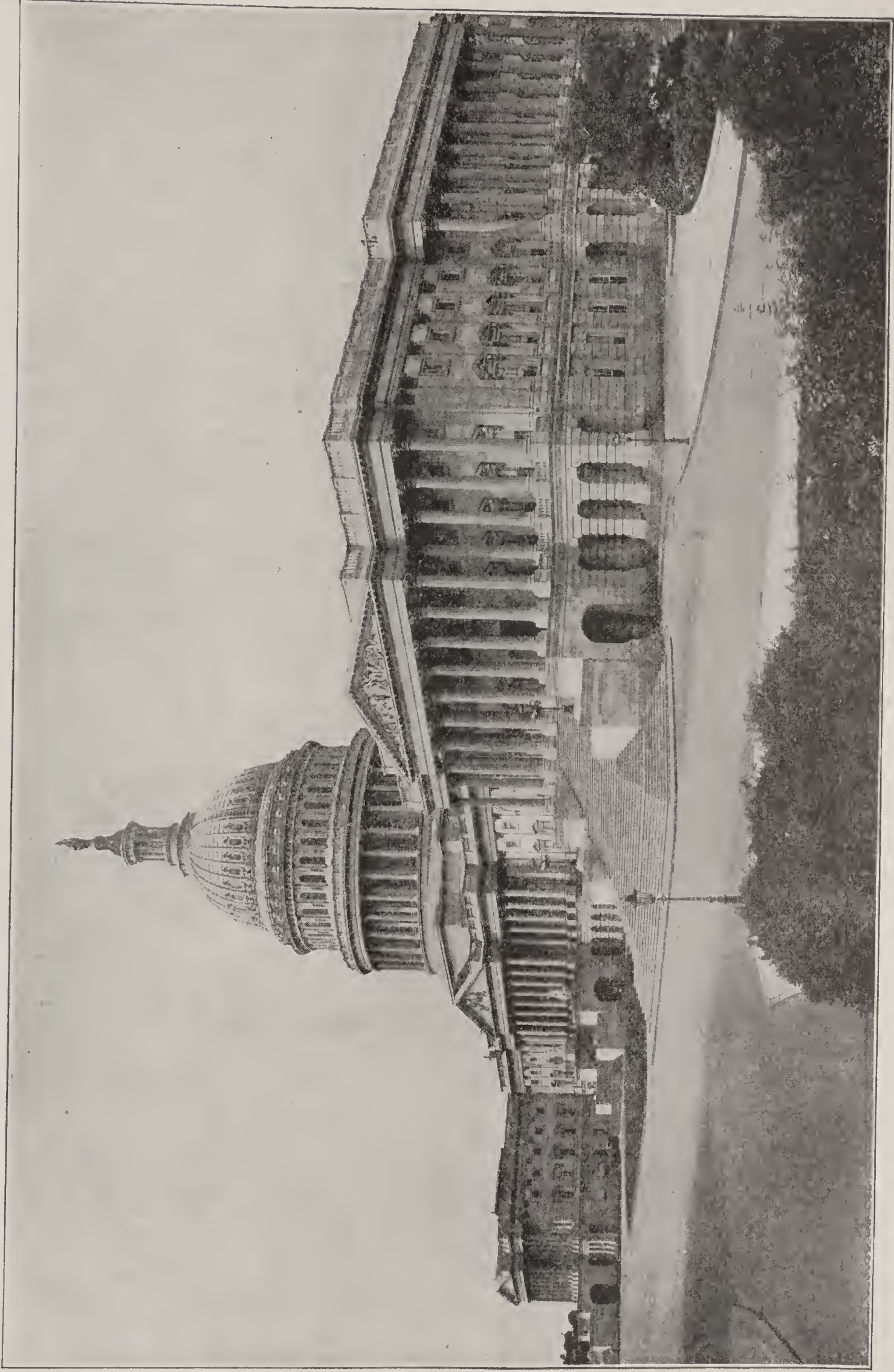
A
Merited
Tribute

“He is in the prime of life, a never-faltering friend, with qualities of leadership unsurpassed, of sterling honor, of broad mind, of liberal views, of wide public information; of great business capacity, and, withal, a parliamentarian who would grace the Presidency of the Senate of the United States. A native of our State, the son of a humble farmer, he was reared to love of country in sight of the historic field of Monmouth, on which the blood of our ancestors was shed that a republic might exist. From a poor country boy, unaided and alone, he has risen to high renown among us. In our State we have done for him all that the political conditions would permit. . . . His capabilities are such as would grace any position of honor in the nation. Not for himself, but for our State; not for his ambition, but to give to the nation the highest type of public official, do we come to this convention by the command of our State and in the name of the Republican party of New Jersey—unconquered and unconquerable, undivided and indivisible. With our united voice speaking for all that counts for good citizenship in our State, we present to you for the office of Vice-President of the republic, Garret A. Hobart, of New Jersey.”

Every American must feel an interest in the men that have held the highest office in the gift of the people. History tells what each one did for his country, but very little about their private lives. All were great men, honest and patriotic, and no country in the world can present a line of rulers of so exalted a character as the men that have been Presidents of the United States. The readers of this History will be glad to learn about the personality of the twenty-four persons that, down to the present time, have sat in the Presidential chair.

Interest-
ing
Facts

First of all we give some isolated but interesting facts concerning them. Washington was older than any of his successors. John Quincy Adams was the first to break this rule. Although two years younger than his successor, Jackson, he was not followed by any other older man. General Harrison was nine years older than Van Buren, his predecessor, and no man born before either of them was afterwards President. General Taylor was six years older than Tyler and eleven years older than Polk, whom he succeeded. Buchanan was nine years older than Fillmore and thirteen years older than Pierce, his predecessors. Lincoln was one year younger than Johnson;



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Grant and Hayes were born in the same year; Arthur was a year older than Garfield, and Cleveland was four years younger than Harrison.

Presi-
dential
Birth-
places

Six Presidents were born in Virginia, two in Massachusetts, two in North Carolina, three in New York, five in Ohio, and one each in New Jersey, Kentucky, New Hampshire, Vermont, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee. Four died in Virginia, five in New York, four in Washington city, three in Tennessee, and one each in Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and New Jersey. Two are still living.

Four Presidents were named James, three John, two Andrew, two William, and one George, Thomas, Martin, Zachary, Millard, Franklin, Abraham, Ulysses, Rutherford, Chester, Grover, and Benjamin. Fourteen had no middle names. The only President named in honor of a President was Andrew Johnson, named for Andrew Jackson.

Two Presidents were born in January, and one each in July, August, and September; three in February, October, and November, two in December, four in March and April, and none in May or June. Three have died in January and two in April; one in each of the following months: February, March, September, October, and December. Four have died in June and seven in July; none has died in May, August, or November. May is the only month in which no President has died or was born. Grant and Hayes were the only two born in the same year, and the elder Adams and Jefferson the only two that died in the same year, their deaths occurring on the same day. Monroe's death and Garfield's birth took place in the same year.

As a rule, few ex-Presidents were alive at the conclusion of the terms of their immediate successors. At the time of Washington's death, however, the living men that had been President, or were destined to become such, were John Adams, Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, John Quincy Adams, Jackson, Van Buren, Harrison, Tyler, Polk, Taylor, and Buchanan.

Ages
of the
Presi-
dents

The last President born in the eighteenth century was Buchanan, while Pierce was the first born in the nineteenth, although he preceded Buchanan in office. Eleven reached or passed threescore and ten; John Adams (91) attained the most advanced age; Madison (85), Jefferson (83), and Van Buren (80) were the other fourscore men; Monroe, Adams, Jr., Jackson, Tyler, Fillmore, Buchanan, and

Hayes passed the threescore point; Garfield (50) was the youngest to die. W. H. Harrison (68) was the oldest at the time of his inauguration; Buchanan was 66, and Taylor 65; John Adams and Jackson were 62, and all the others were in the 50's, except Pierce (49), Grant (47), and Cleveland (49), Grant being the youngest man ever elected President. W. H. Harrison served the shortest time, one month; Taylor served sixteen months and four days, Lincoln one month and eleven days of his second term, and Garfield served six months and fifteen days. Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, Jackson, Lincoln, Grant, and Cleveland were twice elected, but Cleveland alone had to make three trials for his two elections. Two Presidents were assassinated and two died in office. All were married men at the time of their election excepting Van Buren, Buchanan, and Cleveland. Van Buren was the only President to die at his birth-place, and none died outside of this country. Three died on the 4th of July. The son of one President became President, while the honor fell to the grandson of another. What a unique distinction was that of John Scott Harrison, whose father and son each became President!

When John Quincy Adams died in 1848, he had seen all the preceding Presidents, while every one that succeeded him down to the close of the nineteenth century was then living.

Washington was the only President to die in the eighteenth century. Twenty-six and a half years—the longest interval that has yet occurred—passed before there was another death, the next longest interval being between 1849 and 1862.

Washington, during his younger days, was a thorough sportsman, but seems to have abandoned the rod and gun after the opening of the Revolution. John Quincy Adams, next to Benjamin Franklin, was the most famous swimmer among public men. He was fond of long, brisk walks before the sun rose, rarely omitting them in summer or winter. All the earlier Presidents were horseback riders, Washington undoubtedly being the most skilful, as he was the most powerful and best all-round athlete. In his younger days there was no more enthusiastic fox-rider in the country.

Madison was no sportsman, finding his greatest solace in his books. Jefferson was a rider, and, besides being a good student, was always fond of exercise. Monroe was often in the saddle until a short time before his death. Arthur was a famous fisherman, and

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Terms of
Office

Wash-
ington
the best
Athlete

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Harrison's skill as a duck-shooter is well known. Cleveland is also fond of the rod and gun, and like Harrison has proved himself an expert shot.

Jefferson, like Washington and most of the other Southern Presidents, retired from office to his plantation. There he lived long enough to become bankrupt, chiefly through lavish hospitality, and to be founder and first rector of the University of Virginia, a matter he thought worthy to be recorded on his tombstone.

The ex-
Presi-
dents

John Quincy Adams was the first ex-President to return to active participation in national politics, and the only one to serve many successive terms in Congress, or, indeed, to be chosen to the lower House. His father never outlived the general unpopularity under which he retired from office. Andrew Johnson was the only ex-President to be elected to the United States Senate, and he died in the year of his election. Monroe and Madison both went back to their plantations, and both were members of the Convention of 1829, to amend the constitution of Virginia. Jackson lived in retirement at the Hermitage for eight years, and meanwhile joined the Presbyterian Church.

Van Buren, Fillmore, and Cleveland are the only ex-Presidents to be nominated for the Presidency, and Cleveland was the only one to be elected. Van Buren, as Free Soil candidate in 1848, carried no State, but received nearly three hundred thousand votes, and Fillmore, as candidate of the American party in 1856, carried the State of Maryland. Tyler alone of ex-Presidents was an officer of the Confederate Government. He died at Richmond in 1862 while serving as a member of the Confederate Congress. Polk lived three months in retirement at Nashville after leaving the Presidency, and Buchanan at his farm of Wheatland, near Lancaster, Pa., lived seven years, wrote a history of his administration, and saw a great deal of his friends.

Our
Last
Presi-
dents

General Grant left the Presidency to receive the plaudits of mankind in a trip around the world, and lived long enough to be drawn into unfortunate business speculations. Arthur retired from the Presidency to the practice of law and a speedy death. Mr. Cleveland went to the practice of law and a third nomination, after which he made his home at Princeton, N. J. At the commencement of Princeton University, in June, 1897, Mr. Cleveland was honored with the degree of LL.D. President McKinley received a similar dis-

inction from the Western Reserve University, Ohio, June 23, of the same year. Mr. Hayes lived the quiet life of a retired farmer until his death in January, 1893.*

The personality of the ladies who have presided in the White House is as interesting as that of the Presidents themselves. All, without exception, have honored their sex and adorned American womanhood. No whisper of scandal has ever been heard against those names, and the atmosphere of the "Court of the Republic" has been as pure as that which cools our mountain-tops. Beauty, virtue, wit, and all that commands the respect and admiration of mankind have characterized that line of renowned women whose memory is among the precious heirlooms of our common country.

Martha Washington never presided at the White House, because the building bearing that name was not erected until after her husband's death. The present executive mansion, however, was named in honor of her private residence, so that in a figurative sense she was the first lady to grace the White House. She was born in the same year with her illustrious husband, her name being Martha Dandridge, of Virginia. At the age of nineteen she married Daniel Parke Custis, by whom she had four children. She inherited the vast estates of her husband, and was one of the wealthiest women in the Old Dominion. She was a widow of rare beauty and accomplishments, when in 1759 she became the wife of Washington. Her wealth and fine taste enabled her to entertain in magnificent style in New York, the capital of the country, during her husband's administration. She fully shared that great man's fervent patriotism and

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The
Ladies
of the
White
House

Martha
Wash-
ington

* Among the nicknames applied to the Presidents were the following: Washington, the Father of his Country, Americus Fabius, the Cincinnatus of the West, Atlas of America, Deliverer of America, Savior of his Country, and by his political opponents, Stepfather of his Country; John Adams, Colossus of Independence; Jefferson, Sage of Monticello, and Long Tom; Madison, Father of the Constitution; Monroe, Last Cocked Hat; J. Q. Adams, Old Man Eloquent; Jackson, Sharp Knife, Old Hickory, Hero of New Orleans; Van Buren, Little Magician, Wizard of Kinderhook, King Martin the First, Whiskey Van; W. H. Harrison, Old Tippecanoe, Old Tip, Washington of the West; Tyler, Young Hickory, Accidental President; Polk, Young Hickory; Taylor, Rough and Ready, Old Zach, Old Buena Vista; Fillmore, the American Louis Philippe; Pierce, Purse; Buchanan, Old Public Functionary, Old Buck; Lincoln, Honest Old Abe, Uncle Abe, Father Abraham, Railsplitter; Johnson, Sir Veto; Grant, Unconditional Surrender, Hero of Appomattox, American Cæsar; Hayes, President de Facto; Garfield, the Martyr President, Arthur, Our Chet; Cleveland, the Man of Destiny, Grover; B. Harrison, Son of his Grandfather; McKinley, Advance Agent of Prosperity.

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entered into all his feelings during the days that tried men's souls, undergoing many hardships and privations for the cause of independence. Both she and Washington were fond of pomp and ceremony, and their stately receptions were as enjoyable to the one as to the other. Mount Vernon was noted even on the other side of the Atlantic for its splendid hospitality, and many of the most distinguished men and women were entertained there. Martha Washington was an excellent housekeeper, and gave her husband great assistance in the management of their immense estate. She died in 1802.

Abigail
Adams

Abigail Adams was the daughter of Rev. William Smith, of Weymouth, Mass., and was born in 1744. At the age of twenty she became the wife of John Adams, the second President of the United States. She possessed great strength of character, strong sense, and fervid patriotism. While her husband was President, the capital was removed to Washington, which was then a straggling town, mostly built in a swamp. The White House was only half finished, and she held her receptions in the room afterwards used as the library. She was as fond of ceremony as Martha Washington, and was an invaluable companion to her husband. Her letters to him, published in 1848, are of historic importance, and attest her remarkable mental powers. She died in 1818, eight years before her husband.

Martha
Wayles
Jefferson

Martha Wayles Jefferson, born in Virginia, was the widow of Bathurst Skelton, when she became the wife of Thomas Jefferson in 1772. She was highly educated, very beautiful, and a devoted wife, but she died in 1782, twenty years before Jefferson became President. During his two terms it may be said the White House was without a lady. His daughters, Mrs. Randolph and Mrs. Eppes, visited it only twice, though occasionally Mrs. Madison officiated. Mrs. Eppes was at the White House when her child was born, it being the first birth in that historical structure. Mrs. Randolph was fitted in every respect to preside as the hostess of the executive mansion, but the demands of her family forbade.

"Dolly"
Paine
Madison

Dorothy Paine Madison was born in 1772 and became the wife of John Todd, a Quaker lawyer of Philadelphia. She married Madison in 1794, and was one of the most popular ladies that have presided in the White House. She may not have been as elegant in some respects as her predecessors, but she possessed great tact and wit, and seemed never to forget a face. She bubbled over with good nature, cared little for ceremony, was fond of the society of young people,

and “Dolly Madison” was well liked by every one. She died in 1849.

Elizabeth Kortright Monroe was born in 1768 and married Monroe in 1786. She was tall, dignified, highly educated, and the opposite in manner to Mrs. Madison. A great deal of her life had been spent abroad, and she was ceremonious and severe in her social principles. She returned no calls and required full dress. It was said of her that she was “an elegant and accomplished woman, with a dignity of manner that peculiarly fitted her for her station.” She died suddenly in 1830, one year before the death of her husband.

Louisa Catherine, wife of John Quincy Adams, was born and educated in London, where she was married at the age of twenty-two. She was very accomplished, and possessed considerable beauty. She spent the first part of her married life with her husband at the court of Berlin and afterwards at the Russian court. Her health was declining when she entered the White House, and her life there was quiet and uneventful.

The wife of Andrew Jackson died just before his inauguration, and her nieces, Mrs. Andrew Donelson and Mrs. Andrew Jackson, Jr., wife of the general's adopted son, acted in the place of the departed one. The four children of Mrs. Donelson were all born in the White House.

Like Jefferson, Van Buren had been a widower for twenty years when he became President. During his term, Angelica, wife of John, his eldest son, presided with tact and good taste at the White House. William Henry Harrison died within one month after his inauguration, and before his wife had completed her preparations for occupying the executive mansion.

Letitia C. Tyler was born in 1790 and married President Tyler in 1813. Her health became delicate and she died in 1842, soon after coming to Washington. For some time afterwards, Mrs. Robert Tyler, the daughter-in-law, presided at the White House. In 1844 President Tyler married Miss Julia Gardner, who was born in 1824 and died in 1888. She reigned brilliantly for eight months, when the term of her husband came to an end.

Sarah Childress Polk was born in 1803 and married James K. Polk in 1824. She was a favorite in Washington society, very graceful and accomplished. She was a strict member of the Presbyterian Church, banished dancing from the White House, and allowed

PERIOD VII
THE NEW
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STATES
1865
TO
—

Mrs.
Monroe

Mrs.
J. Q.
Adams

Mrs.
Donelson
and
Jackson

Mrs.
Van
Buren

Mrs.
Tyler

Mrs.
Polk

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STATES
1865
TO
—Mrs.
Bliss and
Fillmore

no refreshments at the Presidential receptions, but retained her popularity to the end. She lived to a great age, not passing away until 1891.

The wife of President Taylor went to the White House with extreme reluctance. The stormy military life of her husband had kept them apart for so many years that her dearest wish was that what remained to them of life should be spent together in the quiet of their home. The election of General Taylor destroyed this dream, and she gave over to Mrs. Major Bliss the charge of the receptions, dinners, and ceremonies expected from the wife of the President, whose death brought Mrs. Abigail Powers Fillmore to the White House. She had been a teacher for several years before and after her marriage to Mr. Fillmore, which took place when she was twenty-seven years old. She was social and accomplished, but suffered so much from lameness that she resigned her place, so far as she could, to her young daughter.

Mrs.
Pierce

When President Pierce and his wife were on their way to Washington, their little boy was killed before their eyes in a railway accident. The mother never recovered from the shock. She was the daughter of President Appleton, of Bowdoin College, and had poetic tastes, with slight interest in social and political affairs. Her profound grief commanded the sympathy of every one, and she was pronounced one of the most perfect ladies of all that had graced the White House.

Miss
Lane

James Buchanan was the first and only bachelor President thus far of the United States. His niece, Harriet Lane, presided as hostess during his term. She was tall, finely featured, with a commanding presence and beautiful complexion, and was greatly admired. Her reign was a gay and vivacious one, though, when it ended, the fires of the great civil war had already been kindled.

Mrs.
Lincoln

Mary Todd Lincoln, born in 1818, was twenty-four years old when she married Abraham Lincoln in 1842. She was a cheerful, kind-hearted lady, but the awful death of her husband and the loss of her three sons unsettled her mind. She peacefully passed away in 1882.

Mrs.
Johnson

Miss Eliza McCardle was born in 1810, and when sixteen years old married Andrew Johnson, who himself was barely eighteen years of age, and still a tailor's apprentice. He could hardly write his name, but he studied hard under her instruction until his knowledge surpassed hers. No wife could have been more helpful than she.



THE WHITE HOUSE, WASHINGTON, D. C.

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TO
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When the strange mutations of politics placed her in the White House, her health was so broken that she was unequal to the task of acting as hostess. Consequently, the duties devolved upon her daughters, Mrs. Martha Patterson, wife of Senator Patterson, of Tennessee, and Mrs. Stover, a widow, both of whom displayed tact, dignity, and ability. Mrs. Johnson died in 1876, one year after her husband.

Mrs.
Grant

Julia Dent Grant was born in 1826 and married General Grant in 1848. She was well educated, and proved an admirable wife and hostess of the White House, which became the scene of many magnificent entertainments. One of the most memorable occasions was the marriage, May 21, 1874, of General Grant's only daughter, Nellie, to Algernon Sartoris, of Hampshire, England, who has since died. The wedding was the most brilliant ever seen in Washington.

Mrs.
Hayes

Lucy Ware Webb Hayes married President Hayes in 1852, and was widely known for her devotion to the soldiers wounded in the Civil War. Her experience during her husband's three terms as governor of Ohio qualified her perfectly to preside at the White House, which she did with great grace and dignity. She was gentle, refined, and a devout Christian, laboring untiringly in behalf of temperance and other good causes.

Mrs.
Garfield

Miss Lucretia Rudolph was born in 1832 and married James A. Garfield in 1858, when he became president of Hiram College, in which both had been students. She possessed fine accomplishments, but hardly was she called to preside at the White House when her life was darkened by the tragedy that shocked the civilized world. During the President's long suffering from his mortal wound, she was the most untiring of all the attendants at his bedside.

Mrs.
McElroy

President Arthur was a widower when elected President, and the duties of hostess were never performed more gracefully than by his sister, Mrs. McElroy.

Mrs.
Cleveland

From 1885 to 1886 of President Cleveland's first term, his sister, Miss Rose Cleveland, was the lady of the White House. She was a teacher and author, born in 1846, and her brief reign was worthy of her predecessors. The President was married June 2, 1886, to Frances Folsom, born in 1864. Excepting Dolly Madison, she was the youngest mistress of the White House, whose hospitalities she dispensed with a sweetness, grace, and tact that could not be surpassed.

Caroline Lavinia Scott married Benjamin Harrison in 1854, and was his companion and helper in adversity, as well as the sharer of his prosperity. She was highly educated, and devoted her life to charitable and church work. None was more respected for her grace and true womanliness. Her health failed, and after a lingering illness she died, November 1, 1892.

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Ida Saxton is the daughter of James A. Saxton, who was a prominent business man and banker of Canton, Ohio. She was educated at Cleveland and at Media, Pa. At the close of her school days she made an extended tour in Europe, returning home in 1869. She and Mr. McKinley were married, January 15, 1871, in the Presbyterian church of Canton, of which she is a member. The baby born to them on Christmas Day, 1871, died a few months before the birth of her second child, followed soon by the death of Mrs. McKinley's mother. This affliction, coupled with a physical ailment, made Mrs. McKinley a permanent invalid, and tinged her life with a sorrow which will never be entirely lifted.

Mrs.
McKin-
ley

When Mr. McKinley was in Congress, he and his wife lived quietly at a hotel. Their life is an ideal one of mutual faith and tender affection. They are as devoted lovers to-day as when the Canton beauty was won by the manly young war veteran, rising politician and statesman of the Buckeye State.

Until their removal to Washington, the couple occupied the old Saxton homestead at Canton. Mrs. McKinley is very attractive in appearance, with her deep blue eyes, transparent complexion, oval face, surmounted by brown, wavy curls, and her youthful and benignant expression. She is her husband's inspiration to-day, as she has always been throughout their married life, and he has unbounded faith in her judgment. When he was first elected governor, the small daughter of a family who knew him very well, and to whom he had always been known as "Major McKinley," asked: "And what will Mrs. McKinley be—governess?" Upon this being told to the Major and his wife, they laughed heartily, and he said: "It reminds me of the old story of that other governor, whose notoriously ill-tempered wife, upon hearing of her husband's election, wanted to know what she would be. 'Just the same old termagant that you've always been,' said the governor." "But," cried Mrs. McKinley, "surely you don't mean——" "Yes, my dear, I do," interrupted the Major, turning to her affectionately. "For you'll be just what

PERIOD VII	you always have been, too—the dearest, sweetest, truest helpmate a
THE NEW UNITED STATES 1865 TO	man could have to comfort him.”
—	Thursday, March 4, 1897, was clear, sunshiny, with a blue sky— an ideal day in every respect. The scene at Washington was as brilliant as any that had attended preceding inaugurations. The capital was crowded with tens of thousands of cheering visitors, and the ceremonies were of the most striking character. There were more regular army men in the parade than at any previous inaugura- tion, and it was, therefore, superior to all others. Every branch of the army was represented. The scene in the Senate was of dazzling splendor, the distinguished representatives of foreign countries ap- pearing in gorgeous raiment, while the ceremonies as a whole were not lacking in a single feature that could add to their impressiveness.
The Inaugu- ration	The President’s address was comparatively brief, and announced as his guiding principles a rigid economy in government expendi- tures, a debt-paying instead of a debt-contracting management of our finances, a revenue sufficient to the public needs and mainly from a protective tariff on imports, the revival of Secretary Blaine’s reci- procity policy, the building up of American commerce, the protec- tion of American citizens, and the cultivation of good feeling between the North and the South.
The Presi- dential Cabinet	President McKinley selected an able and representative Cabinet, consisting of Senator John Sherman, of Ohio, Secretary of State; Lyman J. Gage, of Illinois, Secretary of the Treasury; Gen. Russell A. Alger, of Michigan, Secretary of War; Judge Joseph McKenna, of California, Attorney-General; Ex-Gov. John D. Long, of Massa- chusetts, Secretary of the Navy; Ex-Congressman James Wilson, of Iowa, Secretary of Agriculture; James A. Gary, of Maryland, Postmaster-General, and Cornelius Bliss, of New York, Secretary of the Interior.
	In the history of the Venezuelan dispute more than one reference was made to the general movement in Great Britain and this coun- try in favor of international arbitration. The current has set so strongly in that direction that the perfection of such a scheme may be considered one of the certainties of the near future.
	The correspondence between the British premier and Secretary Olney leaves no doubt that both agreed as to the necessity for some understanding by which war between the nations is rendered impos- sible except when the differences concern territorial integrity or



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PRESIDENT MCKINLEY'S FIRST CABINET

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The
Arbitra-
tion
Treaty

national honor. Naturally, there were differences of views between the Marquis of Salisbury and Secretary Olney as to the scope of the proposed treaty, but when two such men are united in the attainment of one great object, they are certain to find common ground upon which to stand. On the 11th of January, 1897, the Anglo-American General Arbitration Treaty was signed by Richard Olney, Secretary of State, representing the United States, and Sir Julian Pauncefote, British ambassador at Washington. It was immediately transmitted to the Senate, accompanied by the following message:

“TO THE SENATE: I transmit herewith a treaty for the arbitration of all matters in difference between the United States and Great Britain. The provisions of the treaty are the result of long and patient deliberation, and represent concessions made by each party, for the sake of agreement upon the general scheme. Though the result reached may not meet the views of the advocates of immediate, unlimited, and irrevocable arbitration of all international controversies, it is, nevertheless, confidently believed that the treaty cannot fail to be everywhere recognized as making a long step in the right direction, and as embodying a practical working plan by which disputes between the two countries will reach a peaceful adjustment as matter of course and in ordinary routine. In the initiation of such an important movement it must be expected that some of its features will assume a tentative character, looking to a further advance; and yet it is apparent that the treaty which has been formulated not only makes war between the parties to it a remote possibility, but precludes those fears and rumors of war which of themselves too often assume the proportions of a national disaster.

“It is eminently fitting as well as fortunate that the attempt to accomplish results so beneficial should be initiated by kindred peoples, speaking the same tongue, and joined together by all the ties of common traditions, common institutions, and common aspirations. The experiment of substituting civilized methods for brute force as the means of settling international questions of right will thus be tried under the happiest auspices. The success ought not to be doubtful, and the fact that its ultimate ensuing benefits are not likely to be limited to the two countries immediately concerned should cause it to be promoted all the more eagerly. The example set and the lesson furnished by the successful operation of this

treaty are sure to be felt and taken to heart sooner or later by other nations, and will thus mark the beginning of a new epoch in civilization.

“ Profoundly impressed as I am, therefore, by the promise of transcendent good which this treaty affords, I do not hesitate to accompany its transmission with an expression of my earnest hope that it may commend itself to the favorable consideration of the Senate.

“ GROVER CLEVELAND.

“ EXECUTIVE MANSION, January 11, 1897.”

The following is a summary of the provisions of the treaty :

The preamble expresses the desire of the Government of Great Britain and the United States to consolidate the relations of amity happily existing between them, and to consecrate by treaty the principle of international arbitration.

The parties agree to arbitrate, subject to the treaty, all questions in difference which they may fail to adjust themselves by diplomatic negotiations.

All pecuniary claims or groups of claims which in the aggregate do not exceed £100,000 in amount, and do not involve the determination of territorial claims, shall be dealt with by an arbitral tribunal consisting of three persons. Two of them shall be jurists of repute, one being selected by each Government. The third shall be an umpire, and shall be selected by these two within two months of their nomination. If they fail to agree upon the umpire within the allotted time, he shall be selected by agreement between the members of the Supreme Court of the United States and of the privy council of Great Britain, each acting by a majority. In case they do not nominate within three months, King Oscar of Sweden and Norway shall select the third arbitrator. The person so selected shall be president of the tribunal. A majority vote shall decide questions.

If, however, pecuniary claims exceeding £100,000 in amount are involved, the decision of this court must be unanimous in order to be final. In case it is not unanimous, either party may demand within six months a review of the award. In such a case a new tribunal is to be selected consisting of five members. Two of them shall be selected by each Government; and the fifth, who is to be president of the tribunal, shall be chosen in the manner prescribed

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TO
—

Provi-
sions of
the
Treaty

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—

for the selection of an umpire of the smaller tribunal. A majority vote of this tribunal shall be final.

When a controversy involving territorial claims arises, the question shall be submitted to a tribunal of six members. Three of them shall be judges of the Supreme Court or the circuit courts of the United States, and they shall be selected by the President of the United States. Three of them shall be members of the Supreme Court of justice, or of the judicial committee of the Privy Council of Great Britain, and shall be selected by the Queen. Their award by a majority of not less than five to one shall be final. If there is

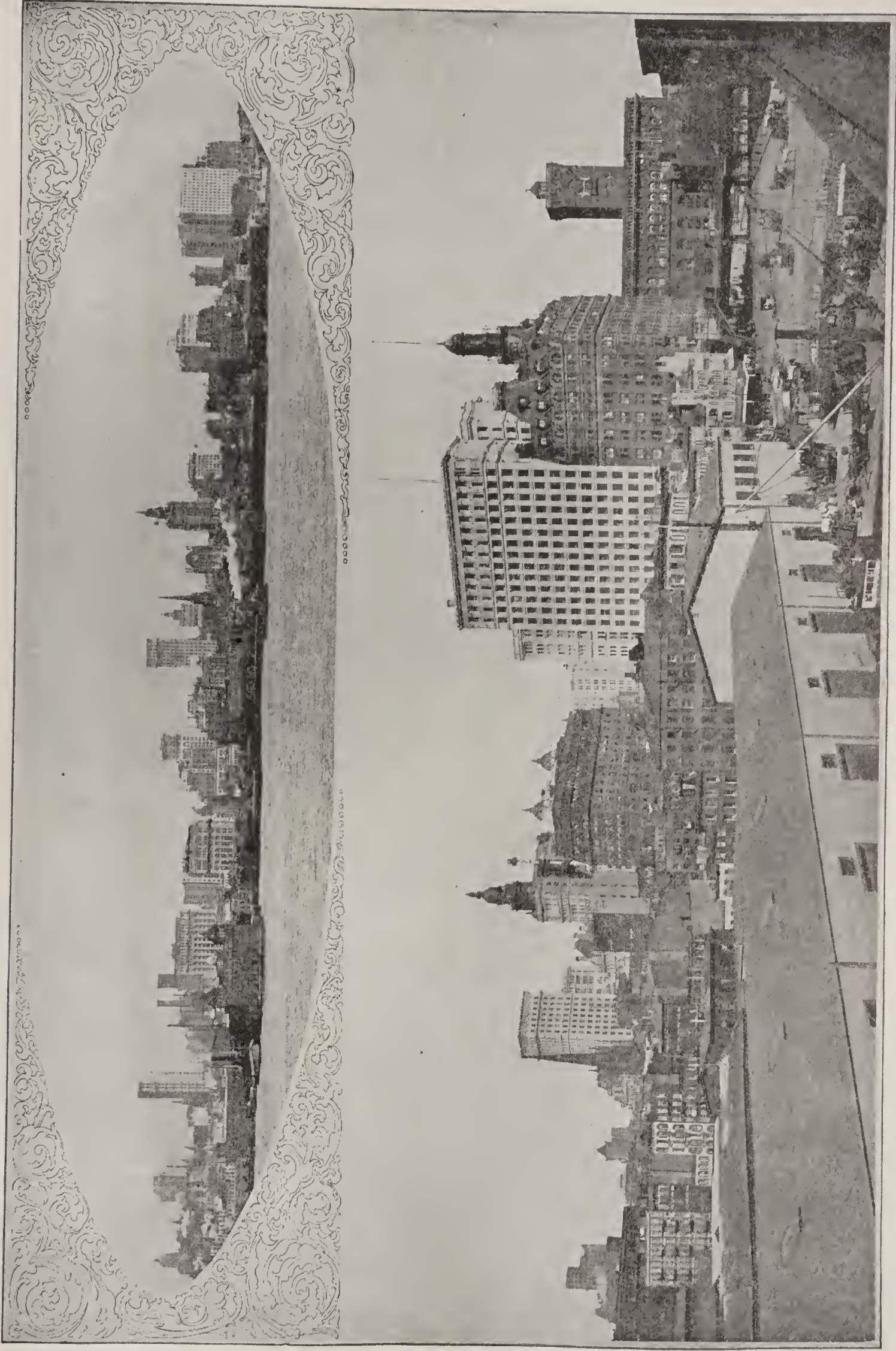


GREATER NEW YORK.—VIEW FROM THE HARBOR SHOWING THE BATTERY AND LOWER PART OF THE CITY

less than the prescribed majority, the award shall also be final unless protested within three months. In such case, or when the vote is evenly divided, no recourse shall be had to hostile measures until the mediation of one or more friendly powers shall have been invited by one or the other party.

If the question involved concerns a State or Territory of the United States, the President may appoint a judicial officer of that State or Territory as one of the arbitrators. Similarly, her Majesty may appoint a colonial judicial officer when the question involves one of her colonies.

Territorial claims shall include all claims to territory, and all other claims involving questions of servitude, rights of navigation, access to fisheries, and all rights and interests necessary to control the enjoyment of either's territory.



GREATER NEW YORK.—SHOWING NORTH RIVER FRONT AND DOWN-TOWN BUILDINGS

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TO

A decision shall be rendered, if possible, within three months of the close of the arguments.

The treaty shall remain in force for five years from the date it becomes operative, and for one year from the date when either party shall have notified the other of its wish to terminate it.

The treaty shall be ratified by the President and the Queen.

This important step towards international arbitration was welcomed with the utmost pleasure on both sides of the Atlantic. Diplomacy,



GREATER NEW YORK.—VIEW FROM STATEN ISLAND, SHOWING THE NARROWS AND LONG ISLAND BEYOND

however, is the deepest of all games, and there was misgiving among many of our statesmen that England's real aim was to secure the moral if not material aid of the United States in the ever-present danger of complications with Continental powers. The Senate Committee on Foreign Relations met on January 30th, and agreed upon a report for submission to the Senate.

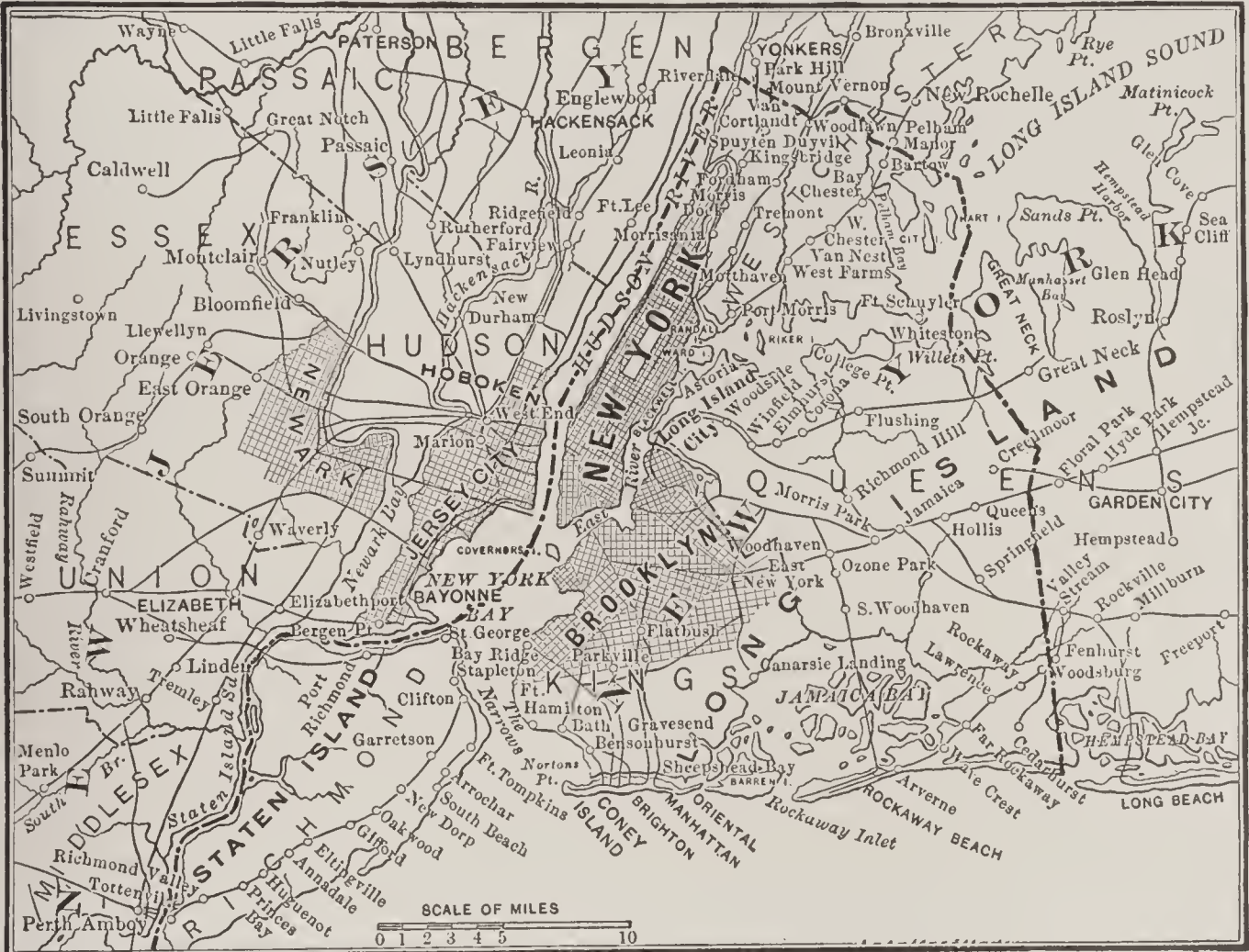
Amend-
ments
to the
Treaty

The most important amendment was that which added the following words to Article I.: "But no question which affects the foreign or domestic policy of either of the high contracting parties or the relations of either with any other state or power, by treaty or otherwise, shall be subject to arbitration under this treaty except by a

special agreement." This amendment it was believed covered the Monroe Doctrine and the Nicaragua Canal, for the completion of which steps have recently been taken.

A second amendment strikes out all reference to his Majesty, the King of Sweden and Norway, as the umpire in case the court fails to agree upon an umpire in accordance with the provisions of Article III. and Article V. Another provided that if at any time before the close of a hearing on any matter, except territorial claims, either party declares that the decision of a disputed question excluded ex-

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GREATER NEW YORK AND VICINITY *

cept by special agreement is involved, the jurisdiction of the tribunal shall cease. The feeling grew that the utmost care and deliberation should precede the ratification of this treaty by the Senate, and it remained officially unacted upon at the close of Cleveland's administration. Meanwhile, as an evidence of the widespread favor with which international arbitration is regarded, Senator Knute Nelson, on the 6th of April, presented a memorable petition to the Senate for its favorable action upon the treaty. The mayors of fifty cities, more than four hundred presidents of colleges, nearly four hundred

Senti-
ment in
Favor
of the
Treaty

* The area covered by Greater New York is indicated by the heavy dotted lines.

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newspapers, the presidents of chambers of commerce of fifty-four leading cities, bishops and archbishops, and leading men joined in the appeal for the Senate's support of the measure. Notwithstanding these indications of popular approval, the Committee on Foreign Relations so amended it as to destroy its value, and the Senate rejected it on May 5, 1897.

Defeat
of the
Treaty

An event of national importance was the creation in 1897 of what is popularly known as "Greater New York." The question of uniting under one government the metropolis and the neighboring outlying cities had been one of interest for a number of years previous. In 1890, the legislature appointed a commission to consider the subject and report to that body. In 1894, after a discussion extending over three years, the legislature provided for a referendum, the verdict of which was strongly in favor of the union of the various cities named.

Accordingly, after much consideration, a bill was framed, passed both branches of the legislature by large majorities in February, 1897, and promptly received the signatures of Mayors Wurster of Brooklyn and Gleason of Long Island City. Mayor Strong of New York vetoed the bill, whereupon the legislature repassed it, and it was signed by Governor Black.

The enlarged metropolis began its official existence January 1, 1898. The government is now vested in a mayor and a municipal assembly, consisting of two houses, elected by the people. The area of the city is 317.77 square miles, and its population, according to official estimates, will, on January 1, 1898, be 3,400,000, the daily increase being 400. If this rate is preserved, the population in fifty years will be 20,000,000, which will surpass that of London, should that city also maintain its present ratio of growth.

"Greater
New
York"

Within the limits of this great city are the cities of New York, Brooklyn, Long Island City, Jamaica, all of Staten Island, the western end of Long Island, Coney Island, Rockaway, Valley Stream, Flushing, Whitestone, College Point, Willets' Point, Fort Schuyler, Throgg's Neck, Westchester, Baychester, Pelham Manor, Van Cortlandt, Riverdale, and Spuyten Duyvil. The extreme length of the city from the southern end of Staten Island to the northern limits at Yonkers on the Hudson is thirty-two miles. Its greatest width from the Hudson River to the boundary line across Long Island, beyond Creedmoor, is sixteen miles, the municipality forming an impressive illustration of American growth and grandeur.



The White Squadron.

CHAPTER XCII

M'KINLEY'S ADMINISTRATION—1897—(CONTINUED)

[*Authorities:* When the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac* encountered each other in Hampton Roads, it was a fateful conflict. The naval authorities and experts throughout the world were confronted by conditions new, and, until then, unexpected. A readjustment to those conditions became a necessity. The immense wooden navies of European nations had become useless. An iron monster like the *Merrimac* could have steamed up the Thames, destroyed the vessels she might have met, and burned the city of London. All this was realized, and at once was inaugurated an age of improvement in naval ordnance and ship-building. Soon iron was discarded, on account of the improvement in artillery, and steel was substituted. Then came the "Harvey Process" and nickel steel, and with them, increased thickness of steel armor. Finally, the question has come whether a vessel can be armored so effectively as to resist successfully the terrible steel shot of 13-inch steel guns. All this time England has been straining every nerve to remain mistress of the seas. The advent of the perfected torpedo-boat, and the early solution of the problem, will probably soon render useless the steel navies of the world. Then will come arbitration, in which equity, and not diplomatic trickery and over-reaching, will have to be the primary consideration.

Authorities are Hon. Hilary A. Herbert, Secretary of the Navy from 1893 to 1897, and Chief Constructor Philip Hichborn.]



Armored Torpedo Boat.

THE glorious history of the American navy has been partly given in the preceding pages. It is a record that must thrill every patriotic heart, and since during the last few years the Government has taken steps to make our navy the finest in the world, a connected account of the growth of this "national bulwark" should be interesting and important.

Five years after the adoption of the Constitution, Congress authorized the construction of six powerful frigates, which were at once laid down by Joshua Reynolds, among them being the *Constitution*, the most famous vessel connected with the navy, she and her sisters

PERIOD VII winning most of the glory that was won by Americans in the War of

THE NEW
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TO



"ATLANTA," U. S. N.

1812. Our pride in our navy was intensified. We were among the first to introduce steam as a motive power on the ocean, and we constructed the finest ships in the world.

Necessity compelled a mushroom growth of the navy during the

War for the Union, and the battle between the *Merrimac* and *Monitor* in 1862 wrought a revolution in naval warfare. In 1861 we were the fifth among naval powers, and the ship-yards rang with hammers night and day in the effort to supply the national need of vessels for blockading and other purposes. Many of these were completed in a few weeks, and were necessarily of so frail a character that they speedily became valueless after the close of hostilities.

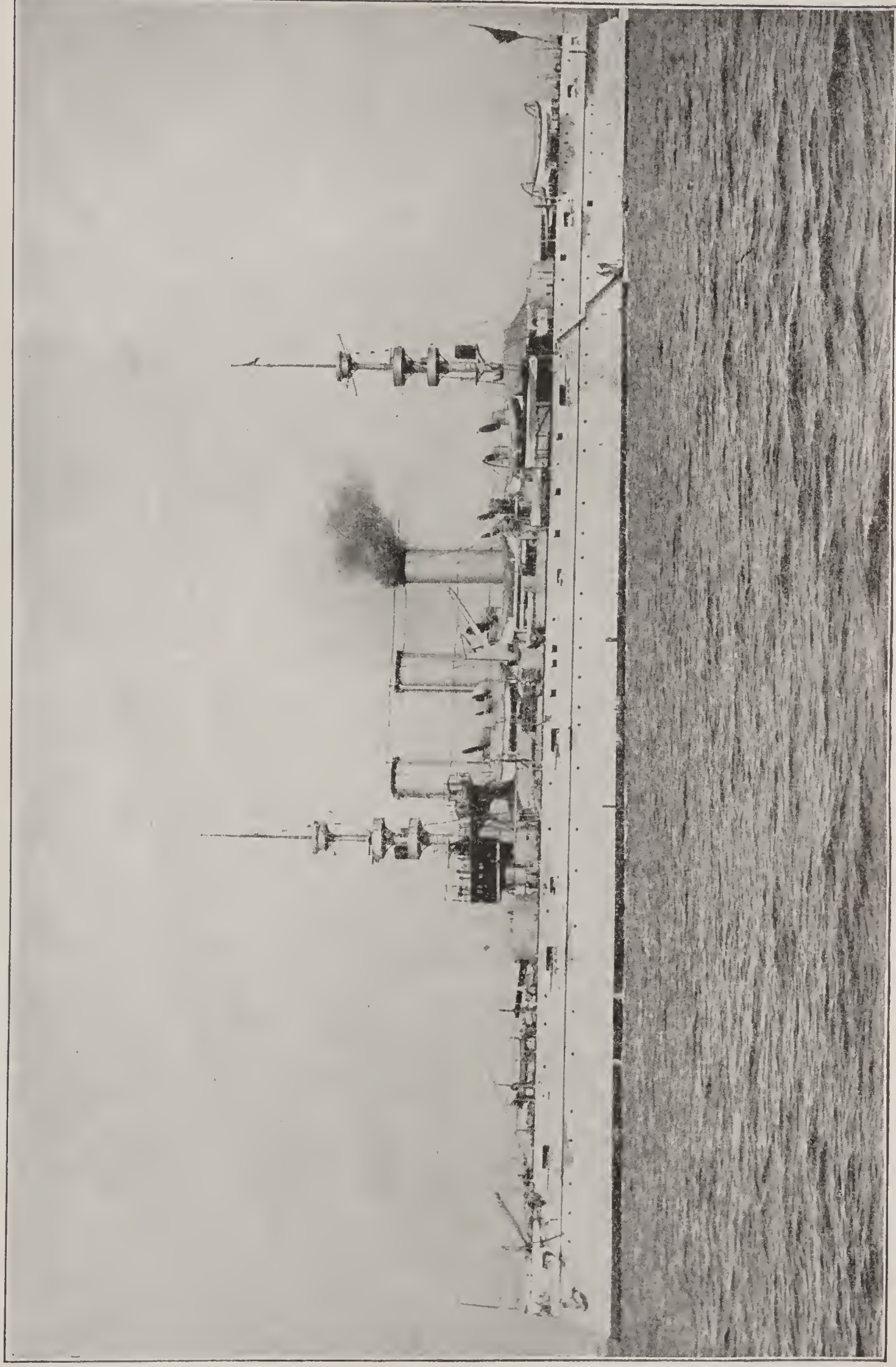
A Period
of De-
cadence

A period of decadence succeeded the war. Waste and extravagance followed, and the work of investigating committees



"CHARLESTON," U. S. N.

proved maladministration in the Navy Department. Congress reduced appropriations, and our warships dwindled, though the utmost



"NEW YORK," U. S. N.

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activity prevailed among other nations. In November, 1881, the Secretary of the Navy, in vigorous language, called the attention of Congress to the fact that our navy was crumbling to pieces, and was in pitiful contrast to the vessels of war of the inferior powers.

The Ad-
visory
Boards

The marvellous progress made by other nations in the construction of projectiles, torpedoes, guns, engines, and vessels, and the growing sense of our own neglect in these respects, soon produced good results. The First Advisory Board, convened by Secretary Hunt in 1881, made modest but valuable suggestions, which have been followed in the main to the present time. Secretary Chandler in 1882 called together the Second Advisory Board (composed, like the former, of naval officers and experts), and, as a result of their recommendations, Congress took action, March 3, 1883, which gave us the first four steel ships of the navy. They were the *Chicago*, 4,300 tons; the *Boston* and *Atlanta*, each 3,000 tons, and the despatch-boat *Dolphin* of 1,500 tons. The *Dolphin* was completed, December 3, 1885; the *Atlanta*, July 19, 1886; the *Boston*, May 7, 1887, and the *Chicago*, April 17, 1889.

On March 3, 1885, Congress authorized the construction of two cruisers of not less than 3,000 nor more than 5,000 tons displacement, a heavily armored gunboat of about 1,600 tons, and a light gunboat of about 800 tons. The small gunboat was the *Petrel*, the large gunboat the *Yorktown*, and the cruisers the *Charleston* and the *Newark*.

On August 3, 1886, Congress authorized the construction of two armored vessels of about 6,000 tons displacement, a cruiser of between 3,500 and 5,000 tons, and a first-class torpedo-boat. The first two were the *Maine* and *Texas*, the third the *Baltimore*, and the torpedo-boat the *Cushing*. At the same time the completion of the four double-turreted monitors, *Puritan*, *Amphitrite*, *Monadnock*, and *Terror*, and the construction of the *Vesuvius* were authorized.

The
Ships of
Domestic
Manu-
facture

In 1886, Congress provided that these ships should be of domestic manufacture, and under such authorization Secretary Whitney contracted with the Bethlehem Iron Company, of Pennsylvania, for armor and great-gun forgings. The delivery of armor by this company was tardy, though in the main satisfactory. The Carnegie Company, of Pittsburg, began making similar deliveries at about the same time to the Government. The only other full-armored cruiser

authorized during Mr. Whitney's term was the *Monterey*. On September 7, 1888, Congress provided for the armored cruiser *New York*.

During the administration of Hilary A. Herbert (to whom we are much indebted for the facts in this article), President Cleveland's Secretary of the Navy, from 1893 to 1897, the construction of the following protected cruisers was begun: *Newark*, *Baltimore*, *Philadelphia*, *San Francisco*, *Cincinnati*, *Raleigh*, *Olympia*, *Detroit*, *Montgomery*, and *Marblehead*; the four gunboats *Petrel*, *Yorktown*, *Bennington*, and *Concord*; the *Vesuvius*, a ship designed to experiment in throwing dynamite with pneumatic guns, and the *Bancroft*, a practice vessel



"BALTIMORE," U. S. N.

for the cadets at the Naval Academy.



"COLUMBIA," U. S. N.

quarters. In every respect the *Olympia* is an up-to-date cruiser, and is so much the superior of the *Chicago* that material changes and improvements are to be made in the latter vessel.

On June 30, 1890, Congress authorized the construction of three

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A comparison between the *Chicago* and the *Olympia* shows the rapid advance made between the times of their construction. The former had a speed of fifteen knots, while that of the latter was twenty-one and three-

Rapid
Improvements

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TO
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first-class battleships, the *Indiana*, *Massachusetts*, and *Oregon*, and a first-class, swift, protected cruiser, the *Columbia*.



"IOWA," U. S. N.

At the same time the "Harvey" process was introduced in manufacturing the armor, which is without a superior in the world. Thus it may be said the foundations of the new American navy have been laid, and our rank at the front of naval powers is assured.

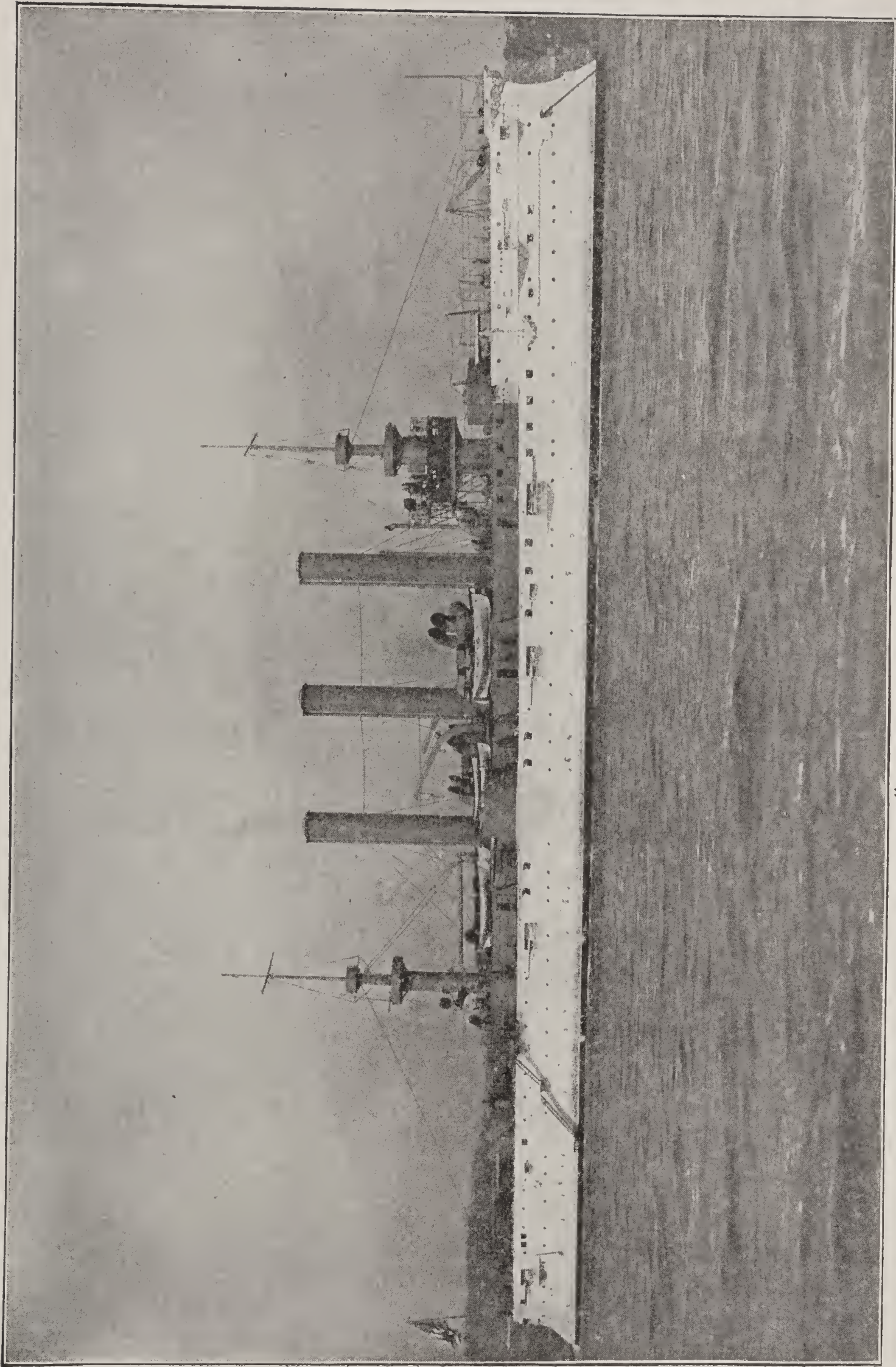
The act of March 3, 1893, authorized the laying down of three gunboats, the *Nashville*, *Helena*, and *Wilmington*. The act of March 2, 1895, authorized six others, the *Annapolis*, *Vicksburg*, *Newport*, *Princeton*, *Wheeling*, and *Marietta*. These are known as "unarmored composite" vessels. Two battleships also, the *Kearsarge* and the *Kentucky*, were authorized, and by act of June 10, 1896, three battleships, the *Alabama*, *Illinois*, and *Wisconsin*, are to be brought into being.



"MINNEAPOLIS." U. S. N.

How
Battle-
ships are
Named

The general law prescribes that battleships shall be named for States, the single exception being made for the purpose of fitly preserving the name of the *Kearsarge*, the destroyer of the *Alabama*, lost on Roncador reef in 1894. It is a



"BROOKLYN," U. S. N. 1695

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notable coincidence that one of the battleships authorized by the next act is the *Alabama*.

Provision was also made for the perpetuation of Admiral Farragut's flagship, the *Hartford*, which after the completion of her repairs at the Mare Island Navy-Yard, will take her place among the cruisers of our navy. Congress has also been urged to preserve for coming generations the old *Constitution*, though only a few remnants of that gallant ship remain.

Chief Constructor Philip Hichborn's table of vessels in the navy, built and under way, gives the following interesting statistics :

Of the eleven battleships only two, the *Maine*, 6,682 tons, and the *Texas*, 6,315, are under 10,000 tons displacement. The *Indiana*, *Massachusetts*, and *Oregon* have 10,288 each, the *Iowa* 11,410, and the *Kearsarge*, *Kentucky*, *Illinois*, *Alabama*, and *Wisconsin* 11,525 each, the three latter, however, when with two-thirds of full coal supply, ammunition, and stores. Their actual displacement, when reckoned like the others with all stores aboard, yet with the normal coal supply instead of the full bunker capacity, will be somewhat different.

Strength
of the
Different
Classes

Notably heavy batteries are those of the *Kearsarge* and *Indiana* class, with four 13-inch, eight 8-inch, and four 6-inch guns, although for all-around efficiency the *Kearsarge* class has been armed by preference with four 13-inch, four 8-inch, and fourteen rapid-fire 5-inch guns, and the *Illinois* class with four 13-inch, no 8-inch, and fourteen rapid-fire 6-inch guns. The thickest side armor is that of the *Indiana* class, eighteen inches, but the later vessels have the advantage of all improvements in armor. The *Indiana* class carry six torpedo-tubes each, and the other battleships four.

We have two armored cruisers, the *Brooklyn*, 9,271 tons, and the *New York*, 8,200. The former is the superior in nearly every way, although the contract price of her hull and machinery was but \$1,000 more. She has a trial speed of 21.91 knots, against the *New York's* 21. She carries eight 8-inch and twelve 5-inch guns to the *New York's* six 8-inch and twelve 4-inch, and five torpedo-tubes to the latter's three. The *New York* has the thicker barbette and side armor, but the *Brooklyn* the more modern.

We have one armored ram, the *Katahdin*, of 2,155 tons and a speed of 16.11 knots, her protective deck being six inches thick on the slope and two inches on the flat,

Our double-turret monitors are six in number, the largest and most powerful in every way being the *Puritan*, of 6,060 tons, with 14-inch armor on the barbettes and sides, and four 12-inch and six 4-inch guns. The *Amphitrite*, *Miantonomoh*, *Monadnock*, and *Terror*, of 3,990 tons each, have 11½ inches on either barbettes or turrets, at the maximum, and their heaviest guns are four 10-inch. There are



“INDIANA,” U. S. N.

also thirteen old single-turret monitors, the *Ajax*, *Canonicus*, *Mahopac*, *Manhattan*, and *Wyandotte*, of 2,100 tons each, and the *Comanche*, *Catskill*, *Jason*, *Lehigh*, *Montauk*, *Nahant*, *Nantucket*, and *Passaic*, of



“MAINE,” U. S. N.

1,875 each. They move about at five or six knots an hour, but this is enough for harbor-defence purposes, and they have five inches of old-style iron plating on their sides and ten or eleven on their turrets. They each mount two 15-inch smooth-bore guns.

The grand total of all classes, built and building, is thirty-three armor-clads.

There are sixteen unarmored steel cruisers built and no others

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The
Double-
Turret
Monitors

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now building. The fastest is the *Minneapolis*, 7,375 tons, of a little over 23 knots, followed closely by her sister ship, the *Columbia*, of 22.8 knots, while the *Olympia*, of over $21\frac{2}{3}$ knots, is a good third. The *Chicago*, of 4,500 tons, is prominent for her powerful battery of four 8-inch, eight 6-inch, and two 5-inch guns, although this will be altered somewhat when she is again fitted out for service. The *Olympia*, with four 8-inch and ten 5-inch guns, and the *Baltimore*, with four 8-inch and six 6-inch, are also heavily armed cruisers.



"NEWARK," U. S. N.

The *Atlanta*, *Boston*, *Charleston*, *Cincinnati*, *Newark*, *Philadelphia*, *Raleigh*, and *San Francisco*, none of them having less than 3,000 tons displacement, and three exceeding 4,000, are, like those already mentioned, protected cruisers, while the *Detroit*, *Marblehead*, and *Montgomery*, of 2,089 tons, are of the simple cruiser type.

Oldest,
Largest,
and
Fastest
Gun-
boats

Our oldest, largest, and fastest gunboats are the *Yorktown*, *Concord*, and *Bennington*, of 1,710 tons each, and they are also the most heavily armed, carrying six 6-inch guns. Next to them in displacement and both longer and broader, but of much less draught, are the *Helena* and *Wilmington*, 1,392 tons each, and the *Nashville*, 1,371,

all three nearing completion. Already in service are the *Castine* and *Machias*, of 1,177 tons each; the *Bancroft*, of 976, and the *Petrel*, of 892. The six composite vessels, *Annapolis*, *Vicksburg*, *Newport*, *Princeton*, *Wheeling*, and *Marietta*, are of about 1,000 tons, and are now building. This gives us a total of sixteen gunboats, while if the despatch-boat *Dolphin*, 1,486 tons, and the *Vesuvius*, 929, should be added, the number would be eighteen.

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Of torpedo-boats, built and building, we have now twenty-one.



"CHICAGO," U. S. N.

The *Cushing* and *Ericsson* are familiar, and also the little *Stiletto*, the only one not of steel. The highest speed expected in our newer boats is 30½ knots, from No. 9 and No. 10, building at Bath, which, on only 146.4 tons displacement, have 4,200 horse-power. No. 11, building at San Francisco, is to develop 5,600 horse-power, and is by far our biggest torpedo-boat, displacing 273 tons, while she is expected to make 30 knots. From the pair advancing towards completion at Bristol, 27½ knots is expected, and from the Seattle boat 26 knots. The three newly finished at Baltimore are to make 24½ knots, and we also have three new 22½-knot and four 20-knot boats building.

The Tor-
pedo
Boats

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Of the vessels left over from former days we have the iron *Alert*, *Monocacy*, *Michigan*, *Pinta*, and *Ranger*, and the wooden *Adams*, *Alliance*, *Enterprise*, *Essex*, *Lancaster*, *Marion*, *Thetis*, and *Yantic*, all in some sort of service. The *Hartford* is rebuilding, and the iron *Alarm* and the wooden *Mohican* are in ordinary.

The wooden sailing-vessels still in service of some sort are the *Constellation*, *Jamestown*, *Monongahela*, *Portsmouth*, and *St. Mary's*. There are also a dozen tugs.

The
Wooden
Vessels

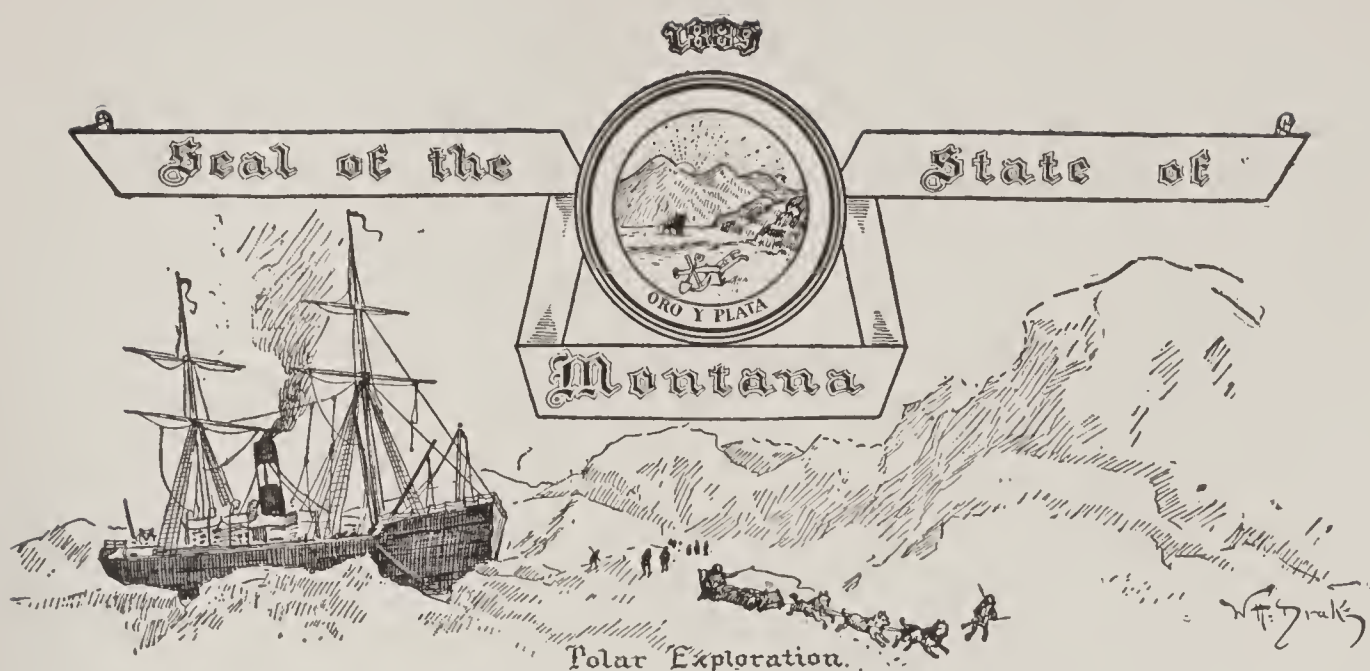
To make the record complete we may add the wooden vessels no longer fit for sea service, of which the steam division is led by the *Franklin*, of 5,170 tons, followed by the *Iroquois*, *Minnesota*, *Nipsic*, *Omaha*, *Pensacola*, *Richmond*, *Swatara*, and *Wabash*, while the sailing-vessels are the *Constitution*, *Dale*, *Independence*, *New Hampshire*, *St. Louis*, and *Vermont*. Yet most of these vessels are still doing duty as receiving ships or vessels for the naval militia, and so on.

No description can give an adequate idea of the wonderful complexity of one of the ocean battleships, but the following extract from a paper by Mr. Hichborn may serve as an outline picture of one of those marvellous creations:

"Take, for instance, a battleship of the type of the *Indiana*, *Massachusetts*, and *Oregon*. She is the home of about five hundred men, and carries 44 guns, varying from the 13-inch, with its projectile of 1,150 pounds, to the 6-millimetre Gatling, which fires a bullet of .0186 pound. Ammunition for all these guns is carried in sufficient quantities to enable her to fight a prolonged action, and still have some left. The heavy guns and their crews, the propelling machinery, the principal auxiliary machinery, and the buoyancy and stability of the ship are protected by armor varying from eighteen inches to four inches in thickness.

A Graph-
ic Des-
cription

"The structure of the ship must be absolutely seaworthy, must support all of the above weights without being unduly strained, and must, moreover, be minutely subdivided into small compartments. Fresh air must be supplied all over the ship and foul air removed. All of the above qualities are possessed by a structure some 350 feet long, 69 feet wide, and 43 feet deep, displacing normally 10,200 tons of sea-water, whose cubic contents are the same as those of a cube whose edge is 85.7 feet."



CHAPTER XCIII

M'KINLEY'S ADMINISTRATION—1897—(CONTINUED)

Arctic Exploration

[*Authorities:* The "Divine Unrest" that prompts man to great endeavor and high achievement has impelled him to invade the eternally frozen solitudes about the North Pole. That men have perished in the attempt to reach the pole, and that each attempt has failed of accomplishing the ultimate object, have served only to stimulate others to make the same trial. We hear much about the gain to geographical science that is the result of these expeditions, but it is doubtful whether the gain is not more fictitious than real. Pope says :

"To know contents our natural desire."

It is this universal desire to know that which is hidden from us that wins the world to countenance such enterprises ; and the intensity of this desire increases as the obstacles to our knowledge are multiplied. Our explorers in every domain may confidently count upon the applause of the world if they come back with news of the hitherto unknown. They may be equally confident, too, that it will not occur to many to start the question of *cui bono?*—what is the good of it? Then again, no one can assert, with any degree of certainty, that a particular discovery will not, sooner or later, be of practical value, and enhance the happiness and accelerate the progress of the race.

Authorities are R. E. Peary, C. E., U. S. N. ; General A. W. Greely ; papers of the American Geographical Society, and other publications.]



THE achievement of Lieutenant Lockwood and Sergeant Brainard, who in 1882 reached the most northern point ever attained up to that time by man, marked an era in Arctic exploration. The work of Lieut. R. E. Peary, C. E., U. S. N., ranks next in importance, for, although he did not go so far north as the members of Greely's party, he penetrated far enough to discover the secret of the northern boundary of Greenland.

The 79th parallel is the highest point previously attained on the

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eastern coast of Greenland. Lieutenant Peary's aim was to learn how far north Greenland extends, and whether it offers the best basis for future efforts to reach the North Pole.

As we have already learned, the highest point as yet attained was by the Norwegian explorer, Dr. Fridtjof Nansen, who on April 7, 1895, reached latitude 86° 15', which is two hundred miles nearer the North Pole than any preceding expedition has ever gone. The following table of latitudes reached by Arctic explorers during the past three hundred years has been compiled by Gen. A. W. Greely :

Furthest
Points
Attained

Eastern Hemisphere.			Western Hemisphere.		
Year	Explorer	Latitude	Year	Explorer	Latitude
1594.	William Barents.....	77° 20'	1587.	John Davis.....	72° 12'
1596.	Ryp and Heemskerck.....	79° 49'	1607.	Henry Hudson	73°
1607.	Henry Hudson.....	80° 23'	1616.	William Baffin	77° 45'
1773.	J. C. Phipps.....	80° 48'	1852.	E. A. Inglefield.....	78° 21'
1806.	William Scoresby... ..	81° 30'	1854.	E. K. Kane	80° 10'
1827.	W. E. Parry.....	82° 45'	1870.	C. F. Hall.....	82° 11'
1868.	Nordenskjöld and Otter.....	81° 42'	1871.	C. F. Hall.....	82° 07'
1874.	Weyprecht and Payer.....	82° 05'	1875.	G. S. Nares.....	82° 48'
1895.	Dr. Nansen... .	86° 15'	1876.	G. S. Nares.....	83° 20'
			1882.	A. W. Greely.....	83° 24'

With the aid of the National Academy of Science of Philadelphia, Lieutenant Peary sailed in the steamer *Kite*, June 6, 1891. He was accompanied by eight men, whose purpose was to study the geology, botany, and zoology of Western Greenland.

In one respect this Arctic expedition differed from all others: it had a female member in the person of the wife of Lieutenant Peary, to whom he had been recently married.

Before landing at McCormick Bay, Lieutenant Peary's leg was broken by a piece of ice that was flung over the vessel. Quarters were erected and the following winter passed comfortably, the surrounding country being thoroughly explored. On the 3d of May the lieutenant bade good-by for a time to his wife, and, accompanied by Mr. Astrup, a Norwegian, started on a journey northward and inland.

Independence
Bay

The couple were gone some three months, during which no mishap befell them. They travelled over an unbroken expanse of snow and ice, which gradually reached an elevation of eight thousand feet. On the 26th of June the limit of land confronted them to the north and northeast. Still farther, it deflected to the southeast. On July 4th, they reached a large bay opening east and northeast, in latitude 81° 37' and longitude 34°. To this body of water they gave the name of Independence Bay.

They arrived at McCormick Bay, August 6th, having journeyed more than thirteen hundred miles. They found the steamer *Kite* awaiting them, and, embarking, arrived at St. John, Newfoundland, on the 11th of September, 1892.

This successful expedition was marred by only one sad incident. Mr. Verhoeff, of Kentucky, a geologist, and one of the most enthusiastic members of the party, started off on a two days' scientific trip

and never returned. His footsteps were traced to the edge of a glacier, into one of whose crevasses he must have fallen.

Lieutenant Peary was convinced that his expedition proved Greenland to be an island, whose most northerly point lies a short way above the 82d parallel, the two coasts rapidly approaching each other above the 77th parallel.

Another expedition sailed from St. John in July, 1893, in the *Falcon*, the destination being Boudouin Bay in Inglefield Gulf, thirty-five miles north of McCormick's



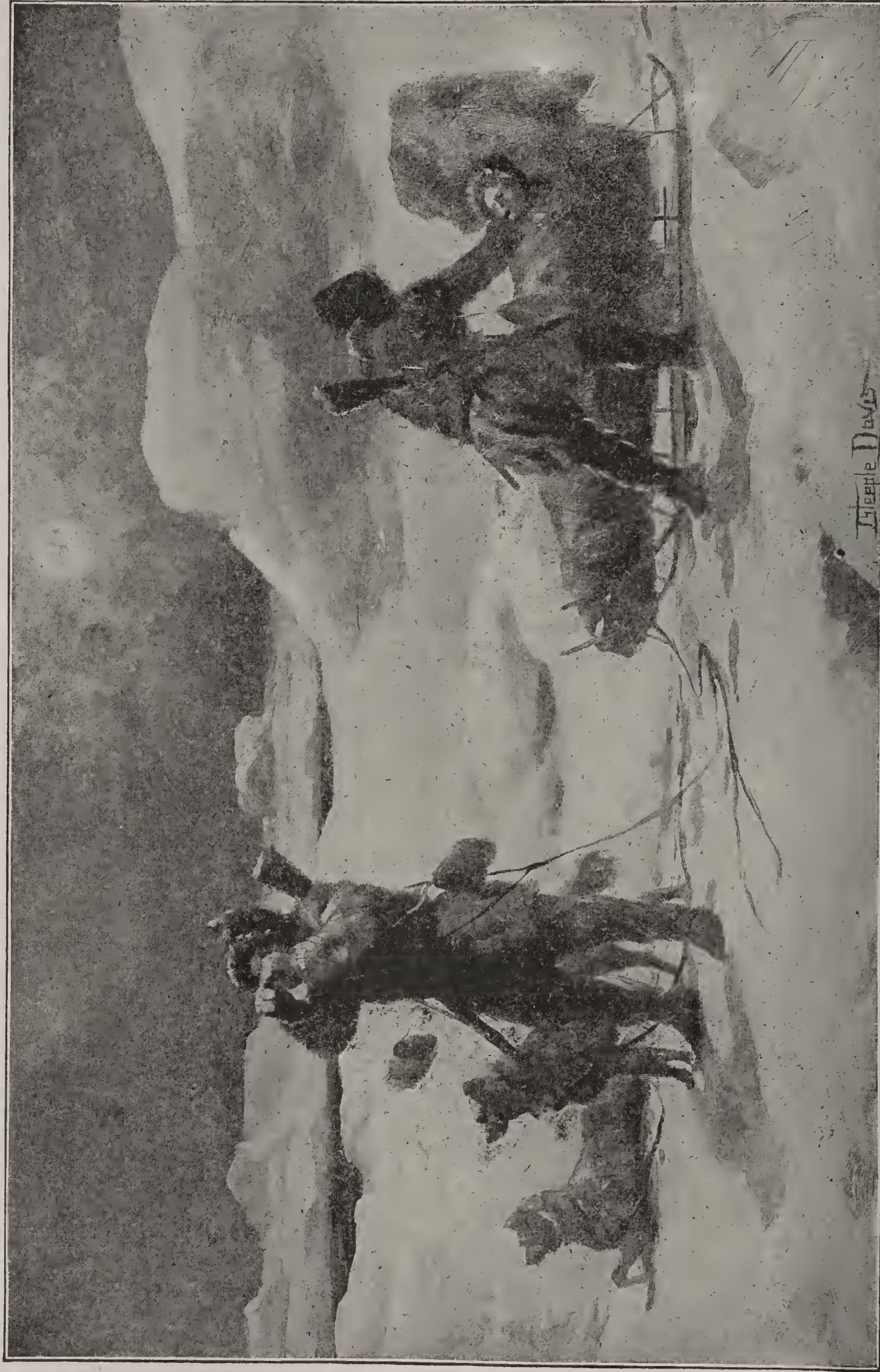
LIEUTENANT PEARY

harbor. The intention was to push on to Independence Bay, the highest point attained by Peary in 1892, to map the coast between that and Cape Bismarck, and to penetrate the archipelago to the north, of which nothing was known. The expedition included twelve men and two women, one of them again being Mrs. Peary, to whom a daughter was born, September 12, 1893, at Falcon Harbor. The ice was so heavy and general that little was accomplished by this expedition.

In September, 1894, the *Falcon* reached St. John with all the members of the party, excepting Lieutenant Peary, Hugh J. Lee,

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Expedi-
tion of
the
Falcon



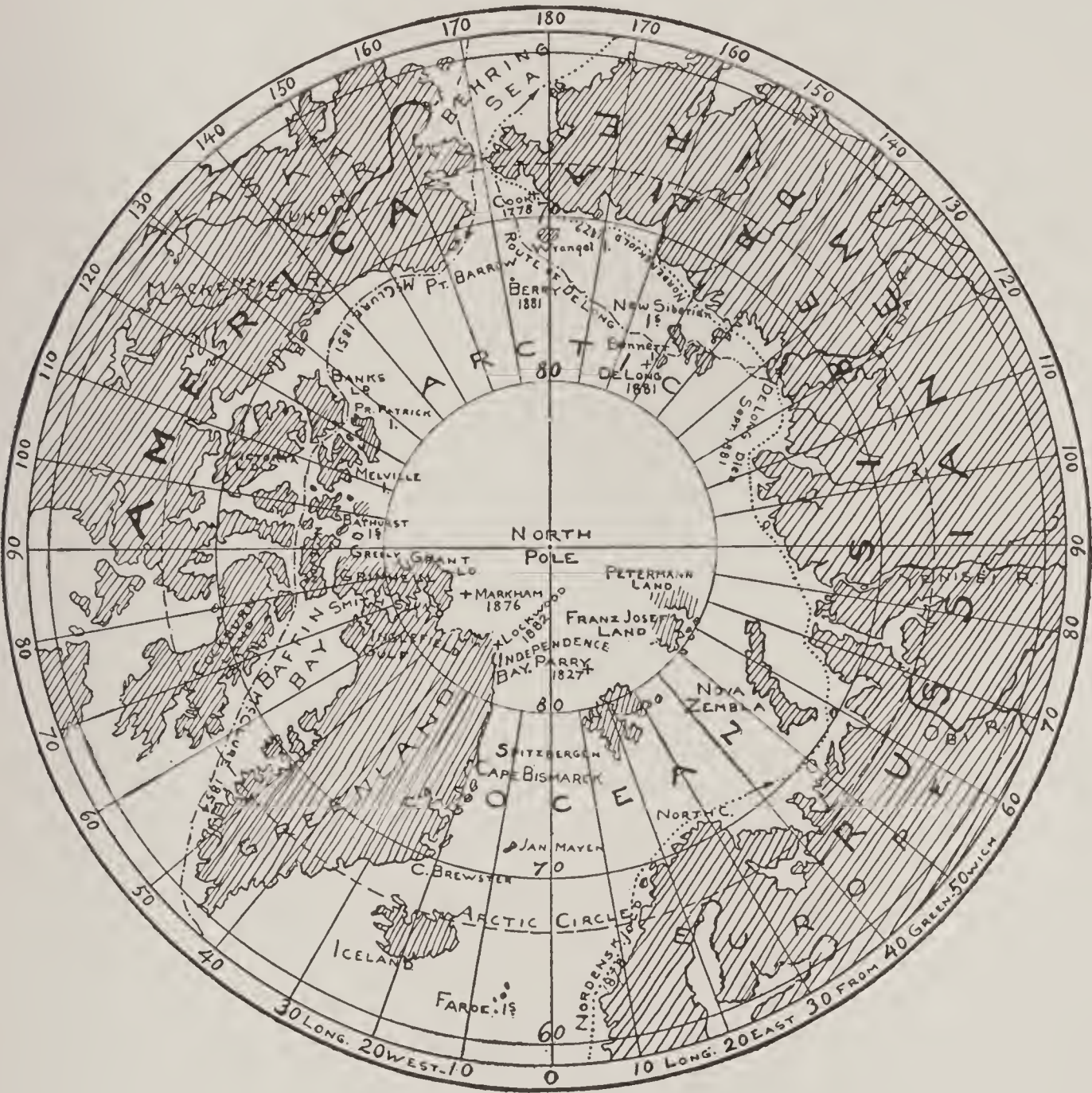
TRAVELLING UNDER DIFFICULTIES

FROM THE ORIGINAL PAINTING BY J. STEEPLE DAVIS

and Peary's colored servant, Matthew Henson, who stayed behind to attempt the northward journey alone the following year. The next news from the little party was that the relief steamer *Kite* had arrived at St. John, Newfoundland, with the three men safe and well on board.

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Their experience had been of the most trying character. They



REGION AROUND THE NORTH POLE

left Anniversary Lodge, April 1st, with five sledges, forty-nine dogs, and a party of Eskimos. One hundred and thirty-five miles inland they expected to find a cache of provisions, but the snow had buried it out of sight. All the Eskimos deserted, but the three men pushed on, hoping to supply themselves with food by shooting game. Before Independence Bay was reached, Lee succumbed and had to be hauled on a sledge by the others. Several musk oxen were shot, and

A Trying
Experi-
ence



PEARY'S PLAN OF JOURNEYING TO THE POLE

FROM THE ORIGINAL PAINTING BY J. STEEPLE DAVIS

saved the explorers from starvation. On the return the dogs began dying until only one remained. Lee again gave out, and for days was dragged on one of the sleds. For three weeks the men lived on a single meal a day, and for twenty-six hours before reaching camp not one had a morsel of food. The relief expedition walked thirty five miles to Boudouin Bay, where they found Peary and his companions, and the parties returned to the ship, August 4th.

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It was mainly through the liberality of Morris K. Jesup and the directors of the American Museum of Natural History that the *Kite* was fitted out and this expedition undertaken. The steamer brought the most valuable collection ever obtained in the Arctic regions, secured chiefly through Prof. L. L. Dyche, of the Kansas State University, representing the American Museum, who made his headquarters at Holstenberg. It included four thousand specimens of birds' eggs, and animals, such as walrus, narwhal, bear, seal, fishes, lichens, etc., besides two large meteorites, one of which weighs three tons. A meteorite weighing forty tons was also discovered near Cape York, where it was seen and reported by Sir John Ross in 1818. The photographs, covering nearly every point of interest, numbered thousands.

Valuable
Speci-
mens

The sixth expedition, whose inception was Peary's, sailed from Sydney, Cape Breton, July 15, 1896, one of its purposes being to secure and bring home the great Ross meteor. Two independent scientific parties accompanied the expedition, one from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and the other from Cornell University. The former, in charge of Prof. Alfred Burton, was landed at Omenak Fiord, Baffin Bay, while the latter, under charge of Prof. Ralph S. Tarr, was put ashore near the southern end of Melville Bay. Both parties made careful studies and obtained valuable botanical collections. A mountain was discovered and named Mount Schurman, in honor of the president of Cornell University.

The
Sixth
Expedi-
tion

It was found impossible with the appliances at command to remove the great meteor, and the ice forced the party to withdraw, on September 4th.*

Lieutenant Peary furnishes another proof of the strange fascina-

* The American Geographical Society, through its president, Charles P. Daly, presented a gold medal to Mr. Peary on the evening of January 12, 1897, at Chickering Hall, New York city, in recognition of the fact that Mr. Peary had established the insularity of Greenland. The late General G. W. Cullom left \$100,000 to the society for

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tion that the Arctic solitudes exert over the explorers that have once undergone the terrible perils and sufferings in those regions of desolation. His purpose now is to persevere until he reaches the North Pole. His plan is a systematic and comprehensive one, which may be extended over a period of ten years, though it is hoped that success will be attained in a fourth of that time.

The sum needed to carry out this ambitious project is \$150,000.



SKINNING A BEAR ON THE ICE

When this was virtually secured, the Secretary of the Navy, to the dismay of Peary and his friends, ordered him to the Mare Island Navy-Yard at San Francisco. Charles A. Moore, of Brooklyn, presented the case so strongly to Secretary Long that in April, 1897, he revoked the order, and the preparations for the preliminary journey were soon afterwards made.

This first journey is to be for the purpose of completing arrangements with the Eskimos of the Whale Sound country to meet Peary

a building, and a further sum to be known as the Cullom Geographical Fund to be given to those—particularly to American citizens—who should render most distinguished services to geographical science.

at some point in the summer of 1898. These migratory Arctic Highlanders number about two hundred and fifty men, women, and children. They are all acquaintances and friends of Peary, and have received so many presents and kindnesses from him that they will eagerly serve him and go wherever he wishes. Mr. Peary's plan, as outlined by himself, is to select ten families of these Arctic Highlanders, who are best fitted to assist in the intended expedition.

"I want to engage them this coming summer, and have them prepare the walrus meat and fur clothes, canoes, and sledges, and train the dogs between that time and the following summer, when they will be prepared to meet me at some point fixed upon, ready to sail as far north as we can get the ship. By arranging with them in this way to meet me at an appointed time, all the loss of time that would follow upon having to work along the coast to pick them up in 1898 will be avoided.

"After making these necessary arrangements with the Eskimos this summer, my plan is to come back with the ship, and in the summer of 1898 sail to the rendezvous on Whale Sound with the ship fully supplied with concentrated provisions and all the necessary stores for a protracted siege of life in the Arctic regions. There we shall take on the Eskimos and push as far north as we can go with the ship, through Robeson's Channel and on to the head of Sherard Osborne Fjord, if possible. It is possible for an experienced hand to put a ship in at almost any point on Smith Sound, but when it comes to sailing north of that one can only say where he wants to go, and then take advantage of the conditions as they present themselves. At any rate, we shall go in the ship to the farthest north point it is possible to reach with her, and there unload her supplies and establish the Eskimos in a colony. If it be possible to sail beyond Sherard Osborne Fjord, we shall do so. My plan is to take both the men and their wives from Whale Sound, so that they shall be contented in this northern colony. Greely's trouble with his Eskimos was all due to the fact that he had only men. They started back home to their families, three hundred or four hundred miles over the ice. It was a mild species of insanity that afflicted them.

"After unloading, the ship will be sent back to New York, to come up again the next year, 1899, to the point where she left the colony, or if she fails to reach it the next year, then to come again

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Peary's
Plan of
Reach-
ing
the
North
Pole

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in the year after. After the colony is settled, my plan is to take advantage of such daylight as remains in that summer and of the moons during the winter night to push out overland northward, first reconnoitring, and then, when the way is marked out, moving our provisions forward and establishing the settlement at each remove nearer our objective point, leaving caches at every stopping-place and prominent headland as we go. In this way the progress is to be kept up until the farthest northern land is reached, a plan easily



A LONELY HOME IN THE ARCTIC REGIONS

workable, as we shall live in the regular Eskimo snow-house. From this farthest northern land, where the settlement will be fixed temporarily, will be made the last spurt for the pole. The talk about an open polar sea or polar crystal sea is all nonsense. There is no special weather made for the pole, nor are special conditions appointed for that particular locality. Either there is land there, or there is a sea, and a sea like that with which we are familiar in that region, wholly frozen over all the time—the ice mass moving somewhat with the winds, however—or frozen solid for nine or ten months and then intermittently open and closed as the wind listeth.

“The colony will remain at the point fixed upon and only the chosen party go on. Numbers are fatal to Arctic explorations, the entire animus of the region being set against them. The ideal party is two, as Nansen and I have shown, and I shall have what Nansen lacked, Eskimos to drive the dogs. His experience shows that this is necessary. I tell you, just as only a negro can drive a mule, only an Eskimo can drive a dog. The natives will put a sledge over a place where no white man could think of getting it. They are brought up to the business. If our end should be achieved in one expedition from this settlement, all well; if not, we could lie over until the following summer.

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“Until Nansen’s return it was not possible to say that this was the only practicable route to the Pole, but now it is. His experience has shown that one cannot depend upon a ship, which may drift away in the ice that seems to be stationary, and he found also that Franz Josef Land does not reach to the Pole. That leaves only the American route. This is a workable one. Life and health have been shown to be safe in these Arctic lands, and with the Eskimos as porters and drivers, with a small party, with properly placed supplies, and always with a safe retreat, the outlook for success is favorable. It may take several years to accomplish it. It might be all over in 1899. One could not fairly expect that all conditions would so conduce to successful work that his progress would be uninterrupted, but if they did, and we had by February, 1899, got to the last point of land, from which we could, when the light came, set off, say in the middle of March, on the last dash for the Pole, it might be possible to reach it and return not only to the northernmost settlement, but all the way to Sherard Osborne Fjord in time to be taken aboard ship in August of that year. At farthest the Pole could be only 360 miles. It might be only 250. If it were 360 the journey to it and back to the settlement could be made in seventy-two days—at ten miles a day—so that we should be back there by the end of May. Experience has shown that return journeys in the Arctic can be made in half the time of the outgoing trip, partly because one knows the way and partly because there are no supplies to carry. In the event of this good fortune, we should be back home by the end of September, 1899. But as I said, that cannot fairly be hoped for; speculations are so uncertain that the most that can be claimed is that it is possible.”

Probable
time
Required



Falls of the Big Sioux River.

CHAPTER XCIV

M'KINLEY'S ADMINISTRATION—1897—(CONTINUED)

[*Authorities:* A history of the Cuban struggle for independence against the Spaniards is given as fully as authentic facts could be obtained, in this chapter. The persistent mendacity of the Spaniards and their careful censorship of the reports of foreign newspaper men make it extremely difficult to learn the exact truth about affairs in that unhappy island. The indications are, however, that the Cubans will finally achieve the independence for which they have fought so bravely, and which they should have had many years ago. Certainly the sympathy of nearly every intelligent citizen of this country is with them, and the hope is general that they may secure the precious boon for which we fought in the War of the Revolution. In our conflict we fought against an enemy not so ignorant, indeed, as the Spaniards, but just as unscrupulous. A good illustration of these national qualities is found in this chapter in the story of our efforts to preserve from extinction the fur seal. So full of disingenuousness and diplomatic evasion and subterfuge has been the course of "our kinsmen across the water" that the United States was at one time on the point of destroying, in self-defence, the entire herd.

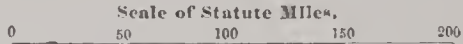
The authorities for this chapter are Spanish and Cuban reports, "Current History," official correspondence between Great Britain and the United States, "Dictionary of United States History," by J. Franklin Jameson, Ph.D., Ramsay's "History of Tennessee," and contemporary publications.]



Morro Castle, Havana, Cuba.

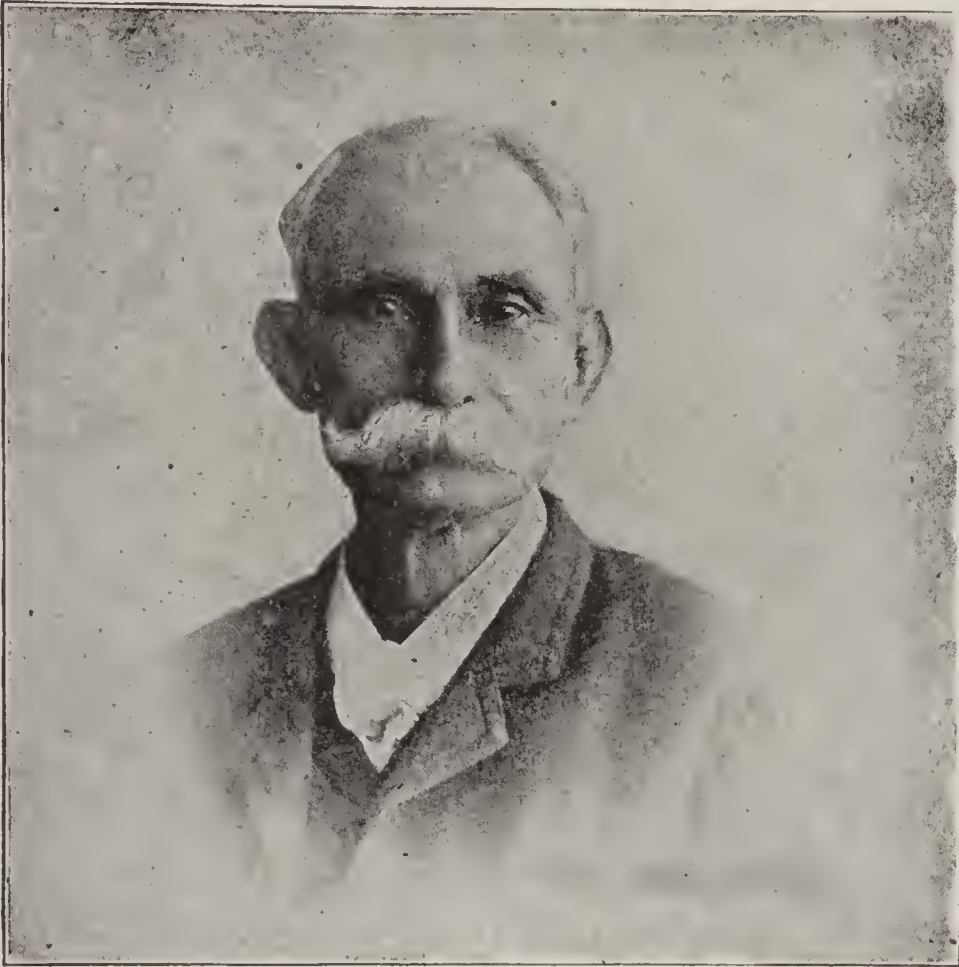
IT is an impressive fact that the nation which four centuries ago overshadowed all others in Europe is to-day among the weakest of them all. Not only that, but its condition is steadily declining, and deservedly so. Spain has been a blight and a curse wherever she placed her hand in the Western hemisphere; she has been rapacious, brutal to the last degree, treacherous, and as merciless to honorable foes as she was to the poor natives themselves. Fire, the sword, blood, and outrage followed in her footsteps, from the

CUBA AND THE GREATER ANTILLES.



days of the brutal Menendez, founder of St. Augustine, until the present hour, when she is putting forth every possible effort to subdue the uprising in Cuba.

PERIOD VII
THE NEW
UNITED
STATES
1865
TO
—



GEN. MAXIMO GOMEZ

In the early years of the present century the Spanish colonies of South America revolted and secured their independence. With only Cuba and Porto Rico left, Spain has been compelled to put down rebellion

Revolt
of
South
Ameri-
can
Colonies

after rebellion in the "Ever Faithful Isle," but at last found herself confronted by the most serious insurrection that has ever flamed out in that fair region.

The first step in the present revolt was taken on February 24, 1895, when the Cubans declared themselves independent of the Spanish monarchy. At that time they had no organization or concerted plan, but one was soon formed, and the masses of patriots were drilled and disciplined until they became



SANTIAGO DE CUBA, FROM HARBOR

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1865
TO

effective troops. Their aim was to form and maintain free communication among themselves in all parts of the island, and gradually to work their way as near as possible to the city of Havana, the



A GROUP OF NATIVES

headquarters of the Spaniards. The first uprising was in the province of Santiago de Cuba. On the 31st of March Gen. Antonio Maceo, his brother José, Crombet, and Cebreco, all veteran leaders, with more than a score of sym-

pathizers, landed at Duaba, near Baracoa, and joined the others. This gave an impulse to the revolt, which continued steadfastly to grow and spread over the island.

Revolt
in Cuba

On the 11th of April, General Maximo Gomez and José Marti, with six friends, landed at the southeastern extremity of Cuba, and, joining Maceo, formed a definite plan of campaign. General Maceo was to remain in the province of Santiago and General Gomez was to go to Camaguey as general-in-chief of the army. Thus the long struggle began between Cuba and Spain, whose pride made her willing to undergo any sac-



HAVANA. OLD ARCH OF THE JESUIT COLLEGE

rifice rather than do justice to the people whom she had ground so long under her heel. Skirmishes and fighting were continuous, and on May 19th, Marti was killed at Boca de los Rios.

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ST. THOMAS STREET, SANTIAGO

By October the revolutionists were 30,000 strong, the western division occupying the province of Puerto Principe and commanded by General Gomez, while the eastern division was in charge of General Maceo.

Strength
of the
Revolutionists

The Spanish army numbered 76,000, but hardly one-half was immediately available. Marshal Martinez de Campos, the Spanish commander, was the best officer in the service of Spain. His plan was to advance eastward from Havana and expel the enemy from the territory as far as the province of Santiago—a program impossible of fulfillment, since his opponents knew the country better, were inured to the pestilent climate, were brave, well officered, and full of enthusiasm.



MORRO CASTLE, SANTIAGO

The reports from each side were naturally tinged by the sources whence they came, but there can be no question that on the whole the advantage was greatly with the insurgents,

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The thoroughness with which the island was permeated and infused with patriotism was shown by the fact that when the Cubans



GEN. MARTINEZ DE CAMPOS

organized a permanent government in October, 1895, five of the six provinces into which the island is divided sent representatives. They made Salvador Cisneros president; Carlos Roloff, secretary of

war; Maximo Gomez, general-in-chief, and Antonio Maceo, lieutenant-general.

If any additional proof were needed of the formidable character of this last revolt in Cuba it is furnished by the official list of the troops with which Spain vainly attempted to quell the rebellion. These figures are taken from "*El Ano Politico*" ("The Political Year"), recently published in Madrid by Señor Solderilla, a member of the Cortes :

Spanish regular troops in Cuba when the revolution broke out February 24, 1895.	13,000
First expedition from Spain.....	8,593
Second expedition.....	7,477
Third expedition.....	4,088
Fourth expedition.....	2,962
Fifth expedition.....	9,601
Sixth expedition.....	29,055
Seventh expedition.....	26,639
Eighth expedition.....	9,033
Ninth expedition.....	18,901
Troops at Porto Rico sent to Cuba.....	1,562
Cavalry detachment paid by the merchants at Havana.....	300
Naval infantry incorporated in the army.....	3,000
Volunteers of Havana.....	2,000
Volunteers sent from Spain.....	2,500
Criminals pardoned in Spanish prisons and enlisted as soldiers.....	2,700
Reserves called out to replace the dead.....	23,000
New reserves called out at the end of 1895.....	8,000
Total men.....	172,295

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TO
—

The
Spanish
Forces

To these may be added the expedition of 16,000 men sent to the island in February, 1896, and not included in the estimate of Señor Solderilla, which refers to the year 1895, and the 50,000 volunteers employed for the garrison of Havana and the principal towns of Cuba. That makes a total of 238,295 men in arms on the Spanish side. And it was said, lately, that General Weyler had asked for reinforcements.

The strength of the Cuban army was between 40,000 and 50,000 men, divided in the early part of 1896 into five corps, the first four operating in the provinces of Santiago, Puerto Principe, Los Villa, and Matanzas, and the last, known also as the Invading Army, operating in Havana and Pinar del Rio. The Spanish held possession of the seaports, and the insurgents of the rest of the country.

The Cubans had every possible difficulty to overcome. Spain looked upon and treated them as bandits, and could she have had her

The
Cuban
Forces

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1865
TO
—Cuban
Patriot-
ism

wish, she would have put every man, woman, and child of them to death. She dared not do this, for the civilized world would have protested, and, furthermore, the bravery of the Cubans gave them the power to retaliate. The latter burned their own plantations to prevent the loyalists gathering the products; they remained as ardent as ever and had skilful officers. Their achievements commanded the respect and sympathy of good men everywhere. It was this devotion to their sacred cause, the thorough acclimation of the soldiers and the skill of their leaders, that made them, man for man, far superior to the Spaniards, and kept awake the faith that their struggle for independence would, sooner or later, be successful.

Nowhere was there more profound sympathy for the Cubans than in the United States, and nowhere else did this sympathy take such practical shape. Vessels loaded with arms and munitions of war, and volunteers, many of them Americans, managed to land their valuable cargoes on the coast of Cuba, where the insurgents were waiting for them. At the public meetings called in various parts of the country the addresses were filled with glowing tributes to the patriotism and bravery of the Cubans, and considerable sums of money were subscribed to their cause. While these amounts were large, there was a good deal of which the public knew nothing that went to swell the fund.

Another source of "the sinews of war" must not be forgotten: the Cuban revolutionary party in the United States, which was founded by José Martí. It included the different political clubs in this country. These clubs elected the delegate and treasurer of the party, and the presidents of all the clubs formed a council. The Cuban cigar-makers and employees numbered 18,000, who contributed ten per cent. of their wages and the whole product of one day's labor each week. When there was special need of money they willingly sacrificed still more. The monthly amount collected in this way was close to \$100,000.

Ameri-
can
Friends

With so widespread and deep sympathy for the Cubans, their cause had no lack of advocates in Congress. The wish of many was that our Government would grant the insurgents belligerent rights. The great benefit of this would have been that the Cubans would at once acquire the status of a nation. The whole character of the atrocious warfare would be changed; the Cubans would be entitled to humane and merciful treatment if made prisoners of war; they would have

the power of borrowing money through the issue of bonds; they could grant letters of marque, and, in short, be so strengthened that it may be said the question of their independence would be settled beyond all doubt in their favor.

PERIOD VII
—
THE NEW
UNITED
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TO
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At the opening of 1896 the towns and coast of Cuba were mostly



GEN. JOSE ANTONIO MACEO

held by the Spanish forces, with the insurgents holding more than the eastern half of the island, and disputing half of the remainder with the Government. They had secured possession of Pinar del Rio, the westernmost portion, and were almost within sight of Havana. Nearly all railway operations were stopped; engines,

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—

General
Weyler

tracks, and bridges were destroyed; a large part of the sugar-cane crop was burned, and the tobacco crop uprooted.

Martinez de Campos, captain-general of Cuba, advocated conciliatory methods towards the insurgents, and was so manly in his manner of warfare that he was recalled January 17th, and was succeeded by Gen. Valeriano Weyler, born in 1836, and said to be of Irish extraction. During the rebellion in Cuba, 1868–1878, he became known as one of the most ferocious miscreants of the innumerable horde that have served Spain for centuries, and his later course has (if the thing is conceivable) added to his execrable reputation. Through corruption he has wrung an enormous private fortune out of the miseries of afflicted Cuba; he has shown no mercy to men, women, or children; he has allowed his own soldiers to perish by the hundred that he might add to his wealth; he has robbed his subordinates of the credit belonging to them and claimed it for himself; he has repeated his promises of “pacifying” the island so often that they have become grotesque; treachery is his favorite method of warfare, and during all the fighting around him he takes infinite care never to expose himself to danger from machete or bullet.

Weyler arrived at Havana, February 10, 1896, and promptly reorganized the military departments, his plan being to begin military operations at the extreme west in the province of Pinar del Rio, and, reducing the provinces one by one, sweep the insurgents eastward and finally off the island altogether.

Guerilla
Warfare

Skirmishes and guerilla warfare went on almost without cessation. Because of the overwhelming numbers of the regular troops the rebels avoided regular battles, but struck numerous effective blows, some of which were as brilliant as those of Marion, the “Swamp Fox” of the Carolinas during our own Revolution. One of the bloodiest battles of the war was fought on April 14th, at La Chuza, in Pinar del Rio, about fifteen miles west of the Trocha, or fortified line of twenty-two miles crossing the island near Havana. The Spaniards were driven to the coast with severe loss, and finally saved from annihilation by a warship that opened fire on Maceo. The destruction of property by the Spanish and Cubans was appalling, and the cruelty of Weyler’s soldiers was never surpassed by that of savages.

Meanwhile, the filibustering expeditions from this country became so numerous that grave complications were threatened with Spain,

which was greatly incensed by our active sympathy with the struggling Cubans.

In the summer of 1896, Salvador Cisneros Betancourt became president of the Cuban republic. Fighting of the same character as before continued, in which the advantage was invariably claimed by each side. It is impossible for any one to sift the truth from the contradictory reports, but the important fact was clearly evident that Spain was making no real progress in the suppression of the revolt.

The most startling blow to Cuban independence was struck on December 7, 1896, when Major-General Antonio Maceo, second in command of the insurgent army was killed. While there can be no absolute certainty in the matter, there are grounds for believing that he was betrayed by his own physician and trusted friend. Color is lent to this horrible charge by the fact that Dr. Zertucha, who was with Maceo when he was decoyed into ambush, was permitted to surrender by the assassins, and received considerate treatment at the hands of the authorities. The son of Gomez was slain at the side of the Cuban leader.

José Antonio Maceo was a mulatto, born in Santiago de Cuba in 1848. He had nine brothers, all of whom, including his father, were killed one after another, while fighting for Cuban independence, until only Antonio remained. His ability and dauntless courage in the previous revolution, during which he defeated General Weyler at Guimaro in 1873, made him a major-general. He was greatly loved by his men, whose hardships he shared when in the field, though none was more fastidiously dressed than he when living in Havana. He was genial and noted for his moral integrity, never tasting wine or playing cards. Great as was the loss of such a leader, it did not weaken the determination of the Cubans to fight to the bitter end for the attainment of their independence.

Gen. Fitzhugh Lee, nephew of Gen. R. E. Lee, and the famous Confederate cavalry leader, was appointed United States Consul-General at Havana, to succeed Hon. Ramon O. Williams, and entered upon his official duties June 3, 1896; General Lee's course has been patriotic and fearless from the first. To his efforts more than one hapless American owes his escape from death at the hands of Weyler, while his tact and honorable conduct command the respect of all.

In the mean time, Spain is powerless outside of the few cities and

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Death of
General
Maceo

Services
of Consul
General
Lee

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TO
—The Fur
Seal
Industry

large towns governed by what is really martial law. The insurgents control three-fourths of the island, but their fighting is of the guerilla order, and the republic is merely prospective. The condition of Cuba is woful beyond description, but the hope for her final independence is brighter than ever before.

Some years after the purchase of Alaska by the United States from Russia, the Pribylov Islands, which are the breeding-grounds of the fur seal, were leased to the Alaska Commercial Company, which was granted a monopoly of seal-killing under stringent regulations intended to prevent the extermination of the animals.

This industry was so valuable that no vigilance of the Government in guarding the islands could prevent wholesale poaching by American and Canadian vessels, which pursued the seals upon the open sea. To stop this, our Government in 1886 set up the claim that Bering Sea was *mare clausum* (a closed sea), and asserted its jurisdiction over the eastern half. When Russia ceded the country to us in 1867 she claimed to grant such rights of jurisdiction, but, unfortunately for us, we protested in 1822 against Russia's claim of the right of sovereignty outside the usual three-mile limit of territorial jurisdiction.

This new doctrine led to the governmental seizure of many Canadian and American sealers, for which Great Britain claimed damages. Considerable negotiation followed, when it was agreed to submit the question to arbitration, which was also to decide upon the best methods for preserving the seals from extinction. The United States appointed as its two arbitrators Justice John M. Harlan, of the Supreme Court, and Senator John T. Morgan; Great Britain, Lord Hannen and Sir John S. D. Thompson; France, Baron de Courcel; Italy, the Marquis Emilio Visconti-Venosta, and Sweden and Norway, Gregers W. W. Gram.

Decision
Against
the
Ameri-
can
Claim

The tribunal began its sessions in Paris, March 23, 1893, and rendered its decision on the 15th of the following August. This decision was against the American claim to exclusive jurisdiction of any sort over the waters of Bering Sea outside the three-mile territorial limit, established a close season for seals in those waters from May 1st to July 31st, and forbade pelagic sealing within sixty miles of the Pribylov Islands, sealing in steam vessels or with firearms, the regulations to be carried out by the British and American governments concurrently.

The regulations equally bound Great Britain with the United States to forbid her subjects to kill, capture, or pursue at any time or in any manner fur seals within a zone of sixty miles around the Pribylov Islands, or during the breeding season in any part of the Pacific, inclusive of Bering Sea, situated north of the 35th degree of north latitude, or eastward of the 180th degree of longitude.

Great Britain was dissatisfied with the award, and the Canadian sealers thought the proposed close season too long, the extent of the

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WHOLESALE SLAUGHTER OF SEALS

prohibited zone too great, and the regulations too severe. There was delay in the necessary legislation in England, which was not effected there nor in the United States until April, 1894. The question left for adjudication was that concerning the compensation due to sealers whose vessels were illegally seized by United States cutters prior to the establishment of a close season in 1890.

The American bill passed Congress and received the President's signature on April 6th, and was put into effect by proclamation four days later. There was some criticism upon the British bill, as not being in exact accordance with the agreement, but it became opera-

Congres-
sional
Action

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TO
—Presi-
dent
Cleve-
land's
Recom-
menda-
tion

tive on the 23d of April. By these measures the close season was made legally binding only upon British, American, and Russian subjects. Vessels of other nations were left free to enter and fish in Bering Sea, but the United States determined to seize all poachers, taking the risk of the suits for damages that might follow.

President Cleveland in his message to Congress recommended the payment of the sum of \$425,000 to Great Britain for damages done to British subjects by the action of the United States cruisers in Bering Sea, adding that these claims of the Canadian sealers had received thorough examination by both governments "upon the principles as well as the facts involved."

Investigation proved that more than one-half of the damages claimed were of the consequential kind. In other words, they consisted of constructive losses in the form of seals that would or might have been taken had not such vessels been warned to keep out of Bering Sea. The tribunal of arbitration had not passed upon this question, and justice required therefore that we should be governed by precedent. The most authoritative precedent was set by the *Alabama* tribunal at Geneva in 1871, which ruled out all consideration of constructive and consequential damages.

Eighteen vessels claimed damages, but it was proven that ten of them belonged to American citizens, the firm of Warren & Boscovitz, of San Francisco, who made a fictitious transfer of their property to an English blacksmith named Cooper. For these reasons Congress refused to vote the payment of a sum that was nearly ten times as large as it should have been.

Danger
to the
Seals

By this time it had become apparent to experts that the regulations recommended by the tribunal of 1893, and subsequently put in force in both Great Britain and the United States, were wholly inadequate to accomplish the purpose intended. Unless more stringent laws are enacted and enforced, the seals in a few years will become as scarce as the bison. Commander C. E. Clark, in his report to the Navy Department, said:

"Upward of 30,000 seals were captured this year (1894) in Bering Sea after the 31st of July, and of these nearly 25,000 were females. A careful estimate, made early in September, showed that 9,300 pups had already died of starvation on the rookeries, and that about an equal number would later perish in the same miserable manner, half of them being females. About 33,000 were lost, and the reproduc-

tive power of the herd has been lowered from 10 to 20 per cent. The success that has attended pelagic sealing this year, and the knowledge that has been obtained of methods that can be followed and of grounds that may be resorted to advantageously, will probably double the number of vessels engaged, and increase the catch proportionately the coming season. The loss as before will fall where it is most to be dreaded, *i.e.*, upon the females. While the disparity in the number of each sex taken has been determined, the reasons for it are not known. In my opinion, the male seals who are not able to fight their way on the rookeries retire as far as they are compelled to by the bulls in possession, and no farther; while the females, who have young to suckle, leave, when impregnated, for the feeding-grounds, which seem, most unfortunately, to be well outside of the prohibited zone."

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Although an extensive patrol was maintained, the pelagic catch in the North Pacific in 1894, including Bering Sea, reached the enormous total of from 130,000 to 142,000 seals. For 1895, the United States decided to entrust the work of patrol to vessels in the revenue-cutter service exclusively, four of which were promptly selected. On March 3, 1895, the House passed a bill authorizing the President to conclude and proclaim a *modus vivendi* with the governments of Great Britain, Russia, and Japan providing for new regulations for the preservation of the seal herd, and in case of failure to arrange such *modus vivendi* on or before May 1, 1896, all the seals, male and female, to be found on Pribylov Islands were to be destroyed. In other words, the United States determined to kill the entire seal herd as the only way of preventing the Canadian poachers from stealing it.

An Enor-
mous
Catch

The failure of Congress to vote a settlement of the claims for damages made by the British sealers that had been seized, delayed joint action by the two governments for the protection of the seals that were threatened with extermination. Finally, it was reported on November 13, 1895, that a convention looking towards the settlement of the claims of Canadian sealers had been negotiated by Sir Julian Pauncefote, the British ambassador at Washington, and Secretary of State Olney, after consultation with Premier Sir Mackenzie Bowell and Minister of Justice Sir C. Hibbert Tupper, representing the Canadian Government. The provision was for a joint commission consisting of one representative each from Great Britain and

Provi-
sion for
a Joint
Commis-
sion

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the United States to meet at Victoria, B. C., to assess the damages suffered by the Canadians. In case of a failure to agree by the two commissioners, a third was to be chosen. If such umpire could not be agreed upon, he should be named by the President of the Swiss republic.

It was reported that about 40,000 seal-skins, of which 80 per cent. were from females, were taken in Bering Sea in 1895, after July 31st, when the close season ended, and that 27,000 dead pups were counted, all of which had perished from starvation at the rookeries.

Treaty
Ratified
by the
Senate

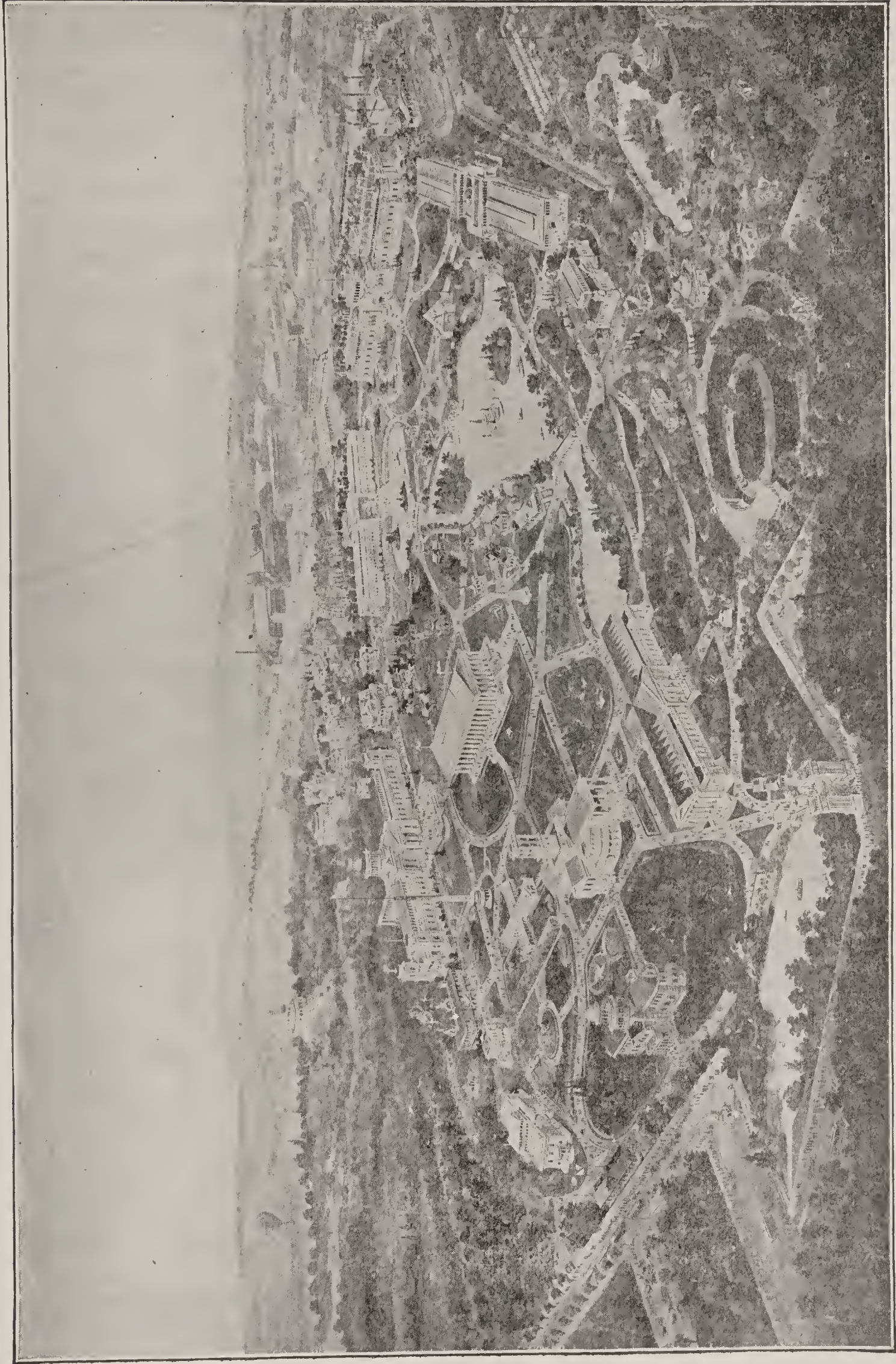
On April 15, 1896, the treaty between the United States and Great Britain, providing for the appointment of a commission to assess damages arising out of illegal seizures of British sealing vessels, was ratified by the Senate. On June 3d, ratifications of the convention were exchanged in London, and several days later the full text was made public. The place of meeting was changed from Vancouver, B. C., to San Francisco, Cal., and a bill appropriating \$75,000 to defray the expenses of the United States in the joint commission was passed and approved by President Cleveland, May 8th. The two commissioners provided for in the treaty were selected in July. They were Judge George E. King, of Canada, and Judge William L. Putnam, of the First United States Judicial Circuit.

The counsel for the United States include Hon. Don M. Dickinson, Robert Lansing, and Charles B. Warren, of Detroit, Mich. The British counsel are Hon. F. Peters, Q.C., Premier of Prince Edward Island, F. L. Beique, Q.C., of Montreal, Quebec, Sir Charles Hibbert Tupper, K.C.M.G., and E. V. Bodwell, of Victoria.

It will be recalled that the first State admitted into the Union was Vermont, on March 4, 1791, followed by Kentucky on June 1, 1792, and by Tennessee on June 1, 1796. Since the last-named State celebrated its centennial from May 1st to November 1, 1897, it is well to refer in this place to the leading incidents in its history, which have already been given a record in these pages.

Early
History
of
Tennes-
see

Tennessee at first was a part of North Carolina, and the first settlements were made on the Wautaga in the eastern part of the State in 1769 by a company of hunters. North Carolina proposed to surrender the territory to the United States Government, but the settlers protested and formed a separate State under the name of Franklin or Frankland, in honor of Benjamin Franklin. John Sevier, the hero of King's Mountain, was elected governor, and the



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TENNESSEE CENTENNIAL AND INDUSTRIAL EXPOSITION, NASHVILLE

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 STATES
 1865
 TO
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legislature requested its admission as a State. So many of the inhabitants were favorable to North Carolina that they overthrew the Government, the North Carolina legislature passed an act of amnesty, and Sevier was admitted as a Senator. A territorial government was organized, under provisions like those of the ordinance of 1787, except that slavery was permitted. Then followed its admission into the Union as already stated.

Knoxville was the capital until 1802, when it was changed to Nashville, which was first settled by James Robertson in 1780. In



NASHVILLE EXPOSITION—VIEW ON COMMERCE AVENUE

Tennes-
 see
 during
 the
 Civil
 War

January, 1861, the State decided by vote not to secede from the Union, but on June 8th the secessionists overcame this vote, and the State was declared a member of the Southern Confederacy. East Tennessee, however, remained stanchly loyal throughout the war. Some of the fiercest battles in that fateful struggle were fought upon its soil, among which were Island No. 10, Nashville, Chickamauga, Lookout Mountain, Missionary Ridge, Shiloh, Stone River, Fort Donelson, and Franklin. It was restored to the Union July 24, 1866, and the present constitution was adopted in 1870. When the State was originally admitted its population was 77,202, which had increased in 1890 to 1,767,518.

Although the third State to be admitted, Tennessee was the first to celebrate its centennial. This was done by holding at Nashville,



Mrs. Tyler
Mrs. Polk
Mrs. Johnson

Mrs. Patterson
Mrs. Lincoln

Mrs. Pierce
Miss Lane
Mrs. Fillmore

LADIES OF THE WHITE HOUSE—1841 TO 1869

the capital, from May 1 to November 1, 1897, a great Centennial and International Exposition. The place where the Exposition was held is in the western suburbs of Nashville, previously known as West Side Park, which contains two hundred acres of beautiful and fertile land, whose trees, shrubbery, and flowers, lakes and rivulets, harbors and pavilions, walks and terraces, including a reproduction of the famous Rialto of Venice, made the scene like a picture from fairyland.

At noon, President McKinley in Washington touched the button which set in motion the machinery of the Exposition, and congratulated the Tennesseans who were present to witness the proceedings. When the wheels began revolving, the boom of a cannon announced the formal opening. Tremendous applause followed, the audience in the auditorium rising and cheering again and again, while every steam whistle in the city added to the din.

The sun was shining bright on the outside, and the exercises were simple and appropriate. After a prayer by Bishop Gaylor, brief addresses were delivered by Governor Taylor, Director-General Lewis, and other state, city, and exposition officers, the entire programme consuming little more than an hour. The attendance during the day and night was estimated at 50,000.

The buildings were numerous and striking. In addition to the great Auditorium, with seats for 6,000 people, there were buildings for commerce, agriculture, machinery, textiles, minerals, forestry, and the arts. The Woman's Building was in the colonial style, and was an elaboration of the "Hermitage," the home of Gen. Andrew Jackson, near Nashville, and was designed by a woman. The History Building was an adaptation of the Erechtheum of ancient Athens. The Negro Building was a massive and imposing structure containing specimens of work done by negroes in all walks of life. The Art Building is a reproduction of that masterpiece of Greek genius, the Parthenon, and all the structures are attractive and admirably adapted to their intended uses.

President McKinley, accompanied by Mrs. McKinley and a party of friends, visited the Exposition, June 11th. Half the population of the city turned out to do honor to the guests, and thousands came from all parts of the State to join in the welcome. At about 10 o'clock, Governor Taylor, of Tennessee, and Governor Bushnell, of Ohio, and their staffs, called on the President, and shortly after a

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UNITED
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1865
TO
—

Opening
of the
Exposi-
tion

The
Build-
ings

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TO

detachment of ex-Confederates in full uniform drew up in front of the hotel, and escorted the presidential party to the Exposition grounds, the journey being in the nature of a triumphal march.

Major J. W. Thomas, president of the Exposition, delivered an address of welcome, and was followed by Governor Taylor, who also welcomed the guests. Mayor McCarthy spoke cordial words for the



NASHVILLE EXPOSITION—THE PARTHENON

city, to which responses were made by Senator Clarke, of Ohio, and Governor Bushnell. President McKinley replied:

Address
of Presi-
dent Mc-
Kinley

“LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:—American nationality, compared with that of Europe and the East, is still very young; and yet already we are beginning to have age enough for centennial anniversaries in States other than the original thirteen. Such occasions are always interesting, and when celebrated in a practical way are useful and instructive. Combining retrospect and review, they recall what has been done by State and nation, and point out what yet remains for both to accomplish in order to fulfil their highest destiny.

“This celebration is of general interest to the whole country and of special significance to the people of the South and West. It marks

the end of the first century of the State of Tennessee and the close of the first year of its second century.

“One hundred and one years ago this State was admitted into the Union as the sixteenth member in the great family of American commonwealths. It was a welcome addition to the national household—a community young, strong, and sturdy, with an honored and

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TO
—



NASHVILLE EXPOSITION—VIEW SHOWING ENTRANCE

heroic ancestry, with fond anticipations not only of its founders, but faith in its success on the part of far-seeing and sagacious statesmen in all parts of the country. I am justified in saying that these anticipations have been grandly realized, that the present of this community of sterling worth is even brighter than prophets of the past had dared to forecast it.

“The builders of the State, who had forced their way through the trackless forests of this splendid domain, brought with them the same high ideals and fearless devotion to home and country, founded on resistance to oppression, which have everywhere made illustrious the Anglo-American name. Whether it was the territory of Virginia or that of North Carolina, mattered little to them. They came willing and eager to fight for independence and liberty, and in the

The
Pioneers

PERIOD VII

THE NEW
UNITED
STATES
1865
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war of the Revolution were ever loyal to the standard of Washington. When their representatives served in the Colonial Assembly of North Carolina they chose—for the first time in our country, so far as I know—the great name of Washington for the district in which they lived, and at the close of the Revolution sought to organize their territory into a State, to be known as the State of Franklin, in grateful homage to the name of another of its most distinguished patriot commoners.

“Spain had sought to possess their territory by right of discovery as a part of Florida. France claimed it by right of cession as a part of Louisiana, and England as hers by conquest. But neither contention could for an instant be recognized. Moved by the highest instincts of self-government and the loftiest motives of patriotism, under gallant old John Sevier, at King’s Mountain, your forefathers bravely vindicated their honor and gloriously won their independence.

“Thus came the new State, second only then of the now mighty West and Southwest. And it has made a wonderful history for itself. Tennessee has sometimes been called the ‘mother of Southwestern statesmen.’ It furnished us the immortal Jackson, whose record in war and whose administration in peace as the head of the great republic shines on with the advancing years. The century has only added to the lustre of his name, increased the obligations of his countrymen, and exalted him in their affection. Polk and Johnson also were products of this great State, and many more heroes of distinguished deeds whose names will come unbidden to your memories while I speak.

Bravery
of Ten-
nesseans

“Tennesseans have ever been volunteer, not drafted, patriots. In 1846, when 2,400 soldiers were called for, 30,000 loyal Tennesseans offered their services; and amid the trials and terrors of the great civil war, under conditions of peculiar distress and embarrassment, her people divided on contending sides. But upon whichever side found, they fought fearlessly to death and gallant sacrifice. Now happily there are no contending sides in this glorious Commonwealth or in any part of our common country. The men who opposed each other in dreadful battle a third of a century ago are once more and forever united together under one flag in a never-to-be-broken Union.

“The glory of Tennessee is not alone in the brilliant names it has contributed to history or the heroic patriotism displayed by the

people in so many crises of our national life, but its material and industrial wealth, social advancement, and population are striking and significant in their growth and development. Thirty-five thousand settlers in this State in 1790 had increased to 1,109,000 in 1860, and to-day it has a population closely approximating 2,000,000. Its manufactures, which in 1860 were small and unimportant, in 1890 had reached \$72,000,000 in value, while its farm products now aggregate more than \$62,000,000 annually. Its river commerce on three great waterways, its splendid railways operating nearly 3,000 miles of road, its mineral wealth of incalculable value, form a splendid augury for the future. I am sure no better workmen could be found than the people of Tennessee to turn these confident promises into grand realities.

“Your Exposition shows better than any words of mine can tell the details of your wealth of resources and power of production. You have done wisely in exhibiting these to your own people and to your sister States, and at no time could the display be more effective than now, when what the country needs more than all else is restored confidence in itself. This Exposition demonstrates directly your own faith and purpose and signifies in the widest sense your true and unfailing belief in the irrepressible pluck of the American people, and is a promising indication of the return of American prosperity. The knowledge which this beautiful and novel Exposition gives will surely stimulate competition, develop your trade, increase your output, enlarge your fields of employment, extend your markets, and so eventually pay for all it cost, as well as justify local sentiment and encourage state pride.

“Men and women I see about me from all parts of the country, and thousands more will assemble here before the Exposition is closed. Let ourselves and let them always remember that whatever differences about politics may have existed, or still exist, we are all Americans before we are partisans, and value the welfare of all the people above party or section. Citizens of different States, we yet love all the States. The lesson of the hour, then, is this—that whatever adverse conditions may temporarily impede the pathway of our national progress, nothing can permanently defeat it.”

At the conclusion of the President's speech, Major Thomas introduced Judge J. M. Dickinson, who, in behalf of the Ladies' Hermitage Association, presented Major McKinley with a hickory cane

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Lessons
of the
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Officers
of the
Exposi-
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cut from the Hermitage grounds. After the speaking in the auditorium the President and party inspected the different buildings, and returned to the city late in the evening.

The following day was spent in attending the dedication of the Cincinnati Building and inspecting the exhibits in the various buildings, the party leaving in the evening for Washington.

The officers of the Exposition Company were: John W. Thomas, president; director-general, E. C. Lewis; commissioner-general, A. W. Willis; chief of the Fine Arts and History Department, Theodore Cooley; chief of the Machinery Department, H. C. White; chief of the Bureau of Promotion and Publicity, Herman Justi.





CHAPTER XCV

M'KINLEY'S ADMINISTRATION—1897—(CONTINUED)

LITERATURE AND INVENTION

[*Authorities:* It is an interesting question in casuistry to decide whether the world owes more for all that makes life worth living and progress possible to its authors of genius, or to its great inventors and organizers. Sir William Hamilton insists that man should be educated not so much as an instrument for the benefit of others, as with the object of making the most of his faculties—in short, as “an end unto himself.” Socrates taught that a man’s principal object should be to become “beautiful and good,” There is, on the other hand, a utilitarian view of life that is held by many. The Germans have divided the various studies that men pursue in their search for self-culture into two great classes. One of these they call the *Brotwissenschaften*—the bread-and-butter sciences. In this country particularly, we are prone to put more stress upon eminence in science and invention than upon literary triumphs. We hear the names of Edison and Tesla more frequently than those of Longfellow and Lowell. We have a strong suspicion that the hint of culture and refinement involved in our praise of an author tempts many to utter their encomiums upon the work of literary men. Besides, it is easier to read and understand their works than to prepare ourselves to talk intelligently about the scientific principles involved in inventions and discoveries.

Authorities are the various accepted biographies of the men that are mentioned.]



Longfellow's House Cambridge Mass.

OUR country has made advances in literature and invention corresponding with its progress in science, discovery, and art. There was a time within the memory of those now living, when the remark was made by an English critic that no one read an American book, but the slur, if partly true in the early years of the Republic, has long since lost all force. American authors are read as widely to-day in Europe as are foreign writers read on this side of the Atlantic. The number at the present time is too vast for enumera-

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tion in these pages, while every decade brings to the front a multitude to charm, delight, and instruct in all the varied branches of literature.

There are a few names, however, so interwoven with the early development of American letters that justice requires a reference to them. William Cullen Bryant, born in 1798, died in 1878, won distinction at the early age of thirteen years by his spirited poem "The Embargo." This was followed by many others, his most famous short poem being "Thanatopsis," written in his teens, all of which displayed high poetic ability, and extended his reputation in every civilized country. He was editor-in-chief of *The New York Evening Post* from 1828 until his death a half-century later. His paper was noted for its virility, elevated tone, and thoroughly democratic spirit. Mr. Bryant was an ardent supporter of the Government during the Civil War, aided in forming the Republican Party, and was a zealous participant in all public questions. His death was due to an accidental fall, while his mind was in its full vigor, and he was as active physically as many men of half his years.

Bryant**Long-
fellow**

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, born in 1807 and died in 1882, first became popular through his "Psalm of Life," written in 1838. This was followed by "Hyperion," "Hiawatha," "Tales of a Wayside Inn," "The Courtship of Miles Standish," and a translation of Dante. His amiable qualities made him popular with all, and in England he divides honors with Lord Tennyson, poet laureate. Longfellow is probably the most widely read of any poet in his own country.

Holmes

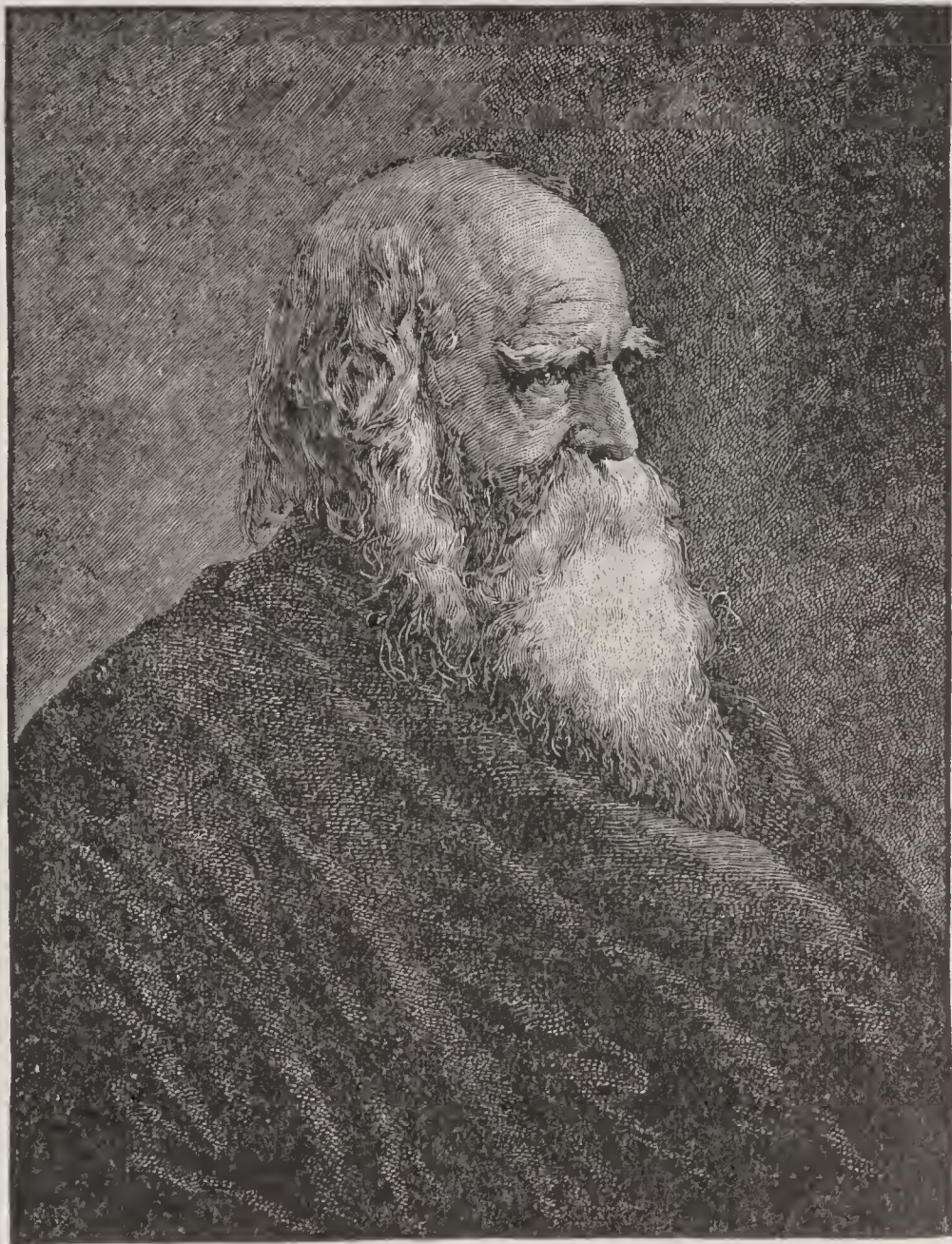
Oliver Wendell Holmes, born in 1809, and died in 1894, was an eminent physician whose great distinction was won in literature. Many of his minor poems are gems, and his genial wit and humor are of the most delightful nature. He was one of the founders of *The Atlantic Monthly* in 1857, in which appeared his "Autocrat of the Breakfast Table," "Professor at the Breakfast Table," "Elsie Venner," and other works. In addition, he wrote the memoirs of John Lothrop Motley and of Ralph Waldo Emerson. As a wit, Holmes outranks all other American poets, and his sparkling, graceful humor is a source of constant delight.

Whittier

John Greenleaf Whittier, the "good Quaker poet," born in 1807 and died in 1892, was a member of the Massachusetts legislature from 1835 to 1836. It may be said that he was born with an inex-

tinguishable dislike of slavery, some of his most vigorous poems being aimed at that institution. He was made secretary of the American Anti-Slavery Society in 1836, edited *The Pennsylvania Freeman* from 1838 to 1839, and furnished editorials to *The National Era*, a Washington anti-slavery paper, from 1847 to 1859. Whittier

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WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT

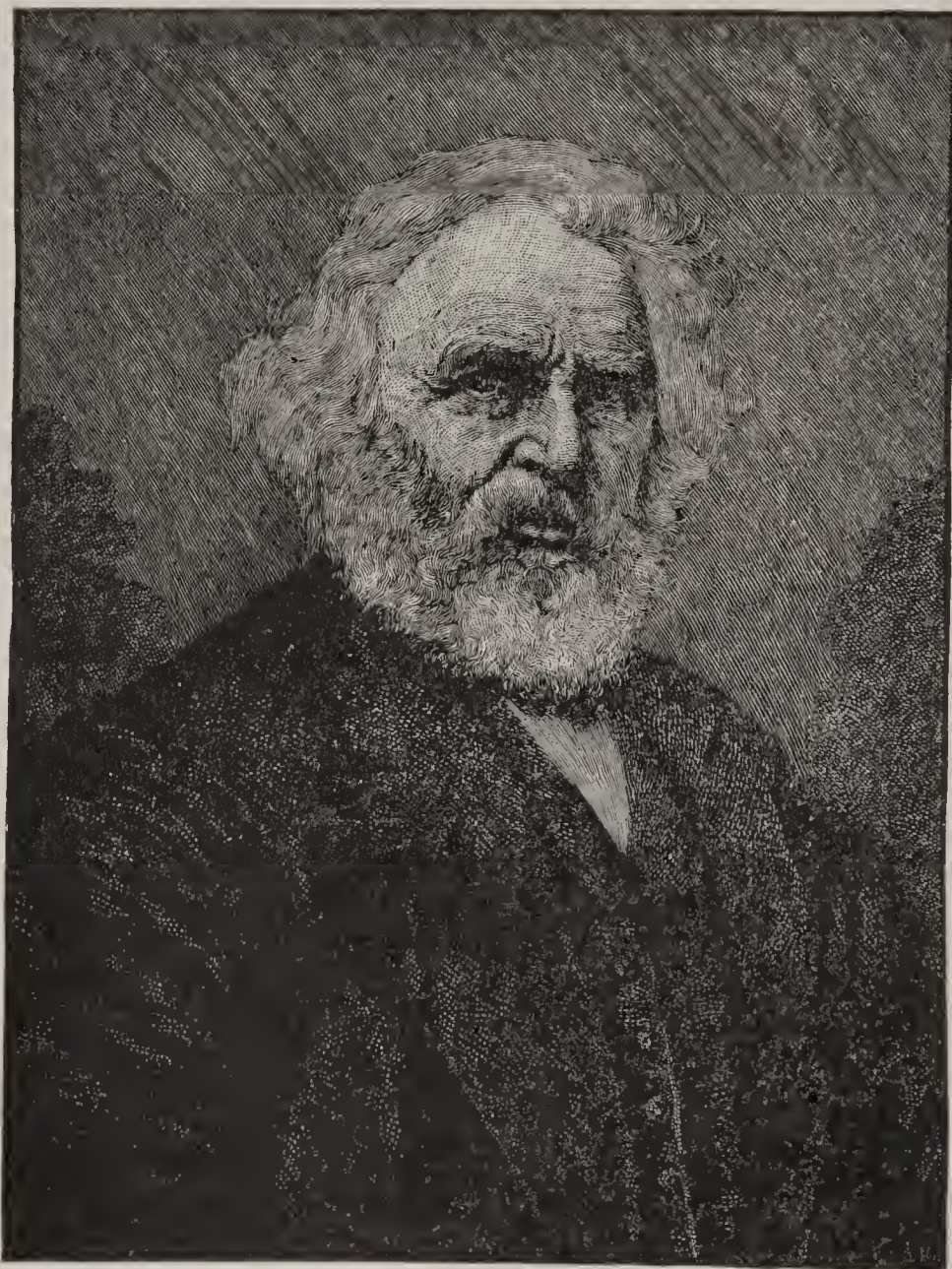
was a man of broad, philanthropic spirit, greatly beloved and second only to Longfellow in popularity. Among his best-known works are “Legends of New England” and “Snow-Bound,” while some of his single poems are ranked as classics.

James Russell Lowell, born in 1819 and died in 1891, was graduated at Harvard and gave his attention to belles-lettres, finally becoming professor of that department and of modern languages at his university. He was a man of great genius, who served with

Lowell

PERIOD VII marked honor as editor of *The Atlantic Monthly* and of *The North American Review*. His essays, "Among My Books," etc., his poems, "Cathedral," "Fable for Critics," "Commemoration Ode," and many others, are masterpieces. He was among the sturdiest opponents of slavery, and his "Biglow Papers," 1846-1848, did a

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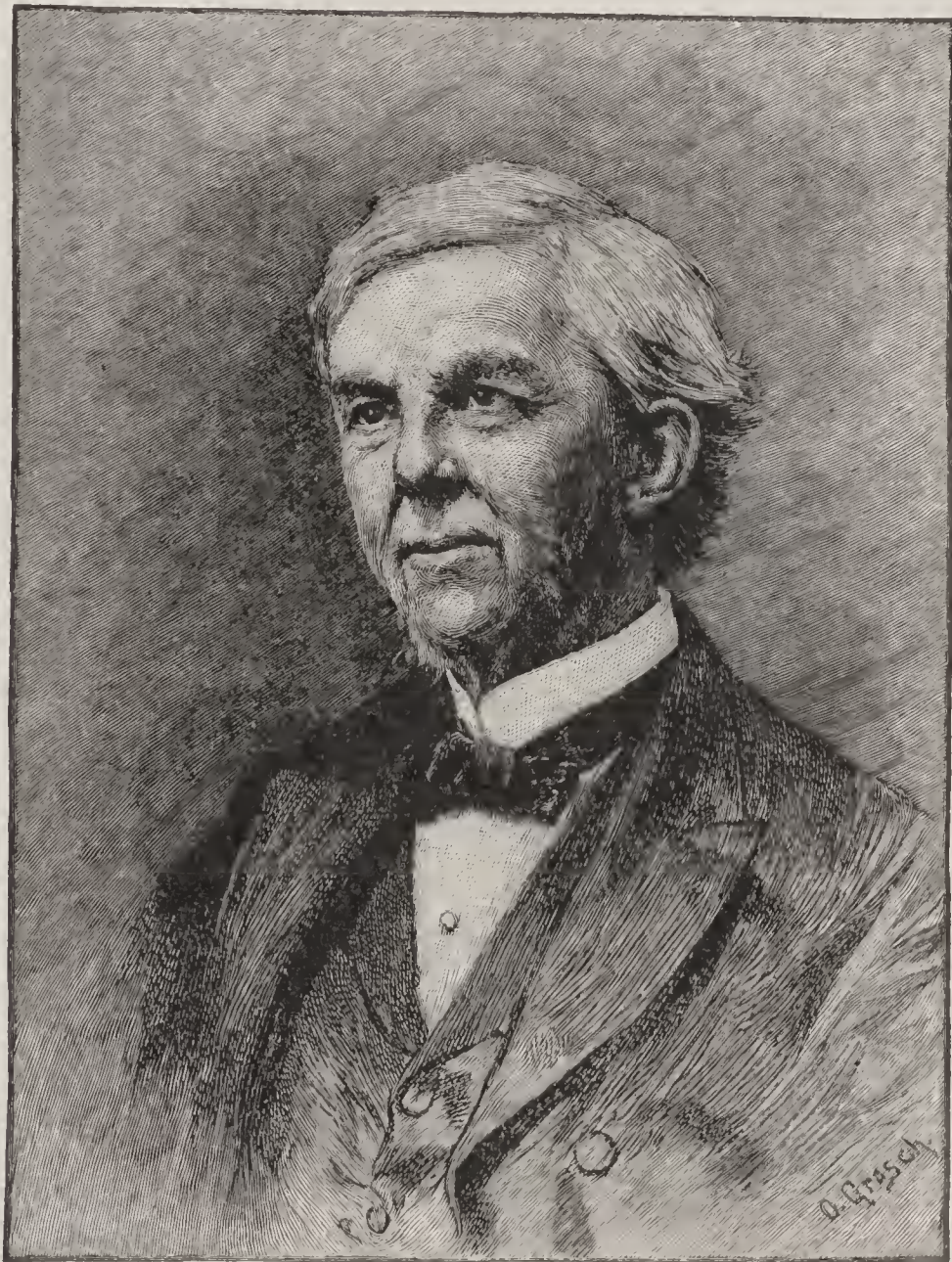
HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW

great deal in organizing the opposition to that institution. A second series were published during the war. Mr. Lowell was United States Minister to Spain, 1877-1880, and to England, 1880-1885. In both of these exalted stations he won general respect and esteem. A number of his papers on political philosophy are contained in "Democracy and Other Essays."

Emerson Ralph Waldo Emerson, born in 1803, died in 1882, was ordained as a clergyman in 1829, but resigned his pastorate three years later, because he could not accept the formalities practised in the church.

He then entered upon his notable career as a lecturer, mostly upon biographical and philosophical subjects, besides contributing largely to periodicals and publishing works on philosophy and literature. His profound learning and majestic genius have left him thus far

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OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES

without a rival in influence upon the thoughtful minds of our country.

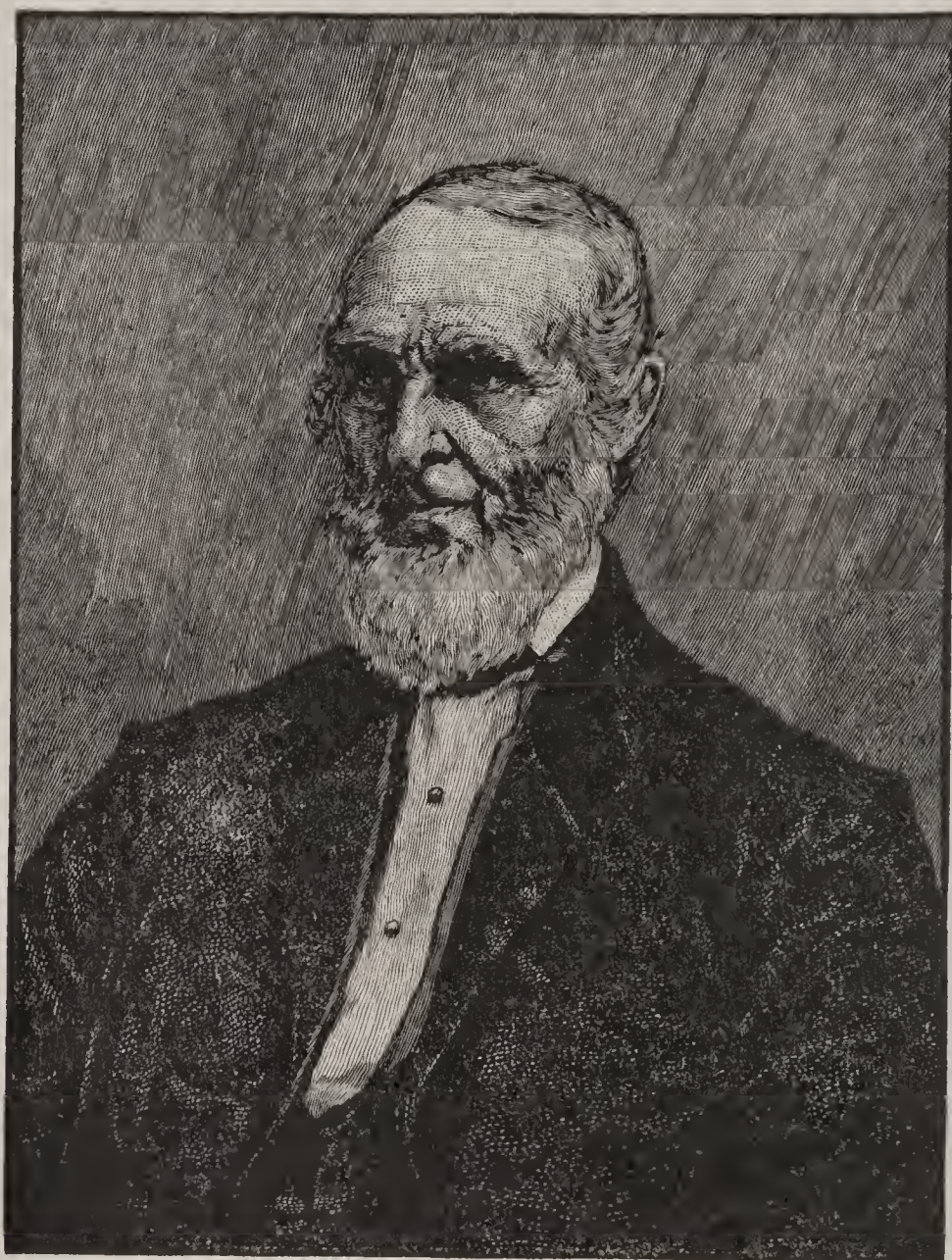
William Hickling Prescott, born in 1796, died in 1859, was the grandson of William Prescott, who commanded at Bunker Hill. He was graduated from Harvard in 1814, but while at sport with some fellow students he received an injury to his eyes that rendered him partially blind for the remainder of his life. His wealth enabled him to pursue his prolonged historical researches, with the result that he produced a number of works of great value and possessing

Prescott

PERIOD VII marked attractiveness of style. "Ferdinand and Isabella" appeared in 1838; "Conquest of Mexico" in 1843; "Conquest of Peru" in 1847; "Philip the Second" in 1855-1858, while he also continued Robertson's "Charles V."

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Jared Sparks, born in 1789, died in 1866, was graduated from

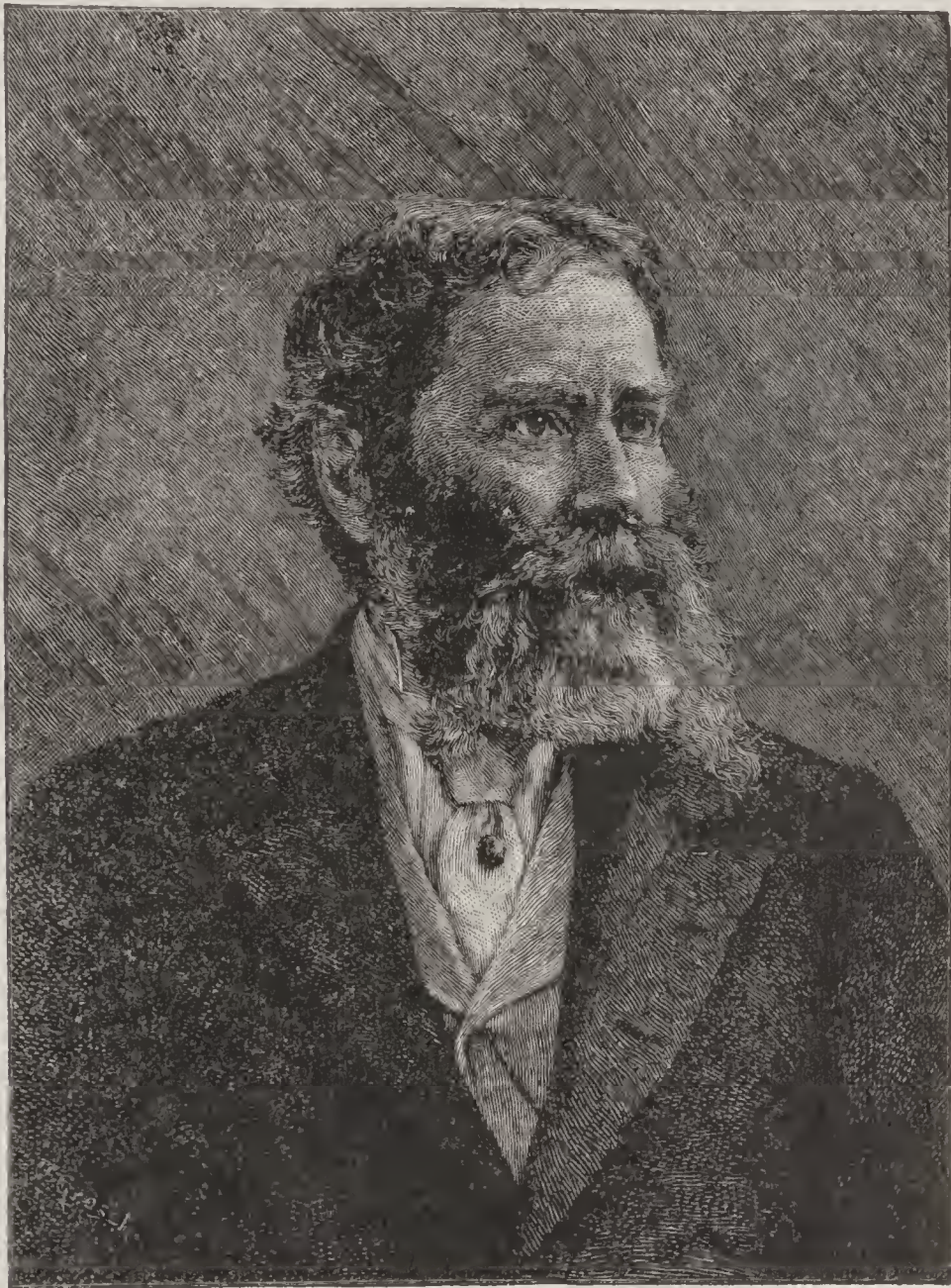


JOHN GREENLEAF WHITTIER

Sparks Harvard in 1815. He was a Unitarian clergyman for a short time and was appointed editor of *The North American Review* in 1824, filling the place for seven years. He became professor in Harvard and was president of the college from 1849 to 1853. He was the author of many valuable historical works, including the "Diplomatic Correspondence of the American Republic," in twelve volumes, the "Life and Writings of Washington," the "Library of American Biography," a biography of Gouverneur Morris, and an edition of Franklin's works.

John Lothrop Motley, born in 1814 and died in 1877, was a student at Harvard and Göttingen, and afterwards secretary of the United States legation at St. Petersburg in 1841. His "Rise of the Dutch Republic" appeared in 1856 and displayed brilliant research and scholarship. From 1861 to 1868 he produced "The History of

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JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL

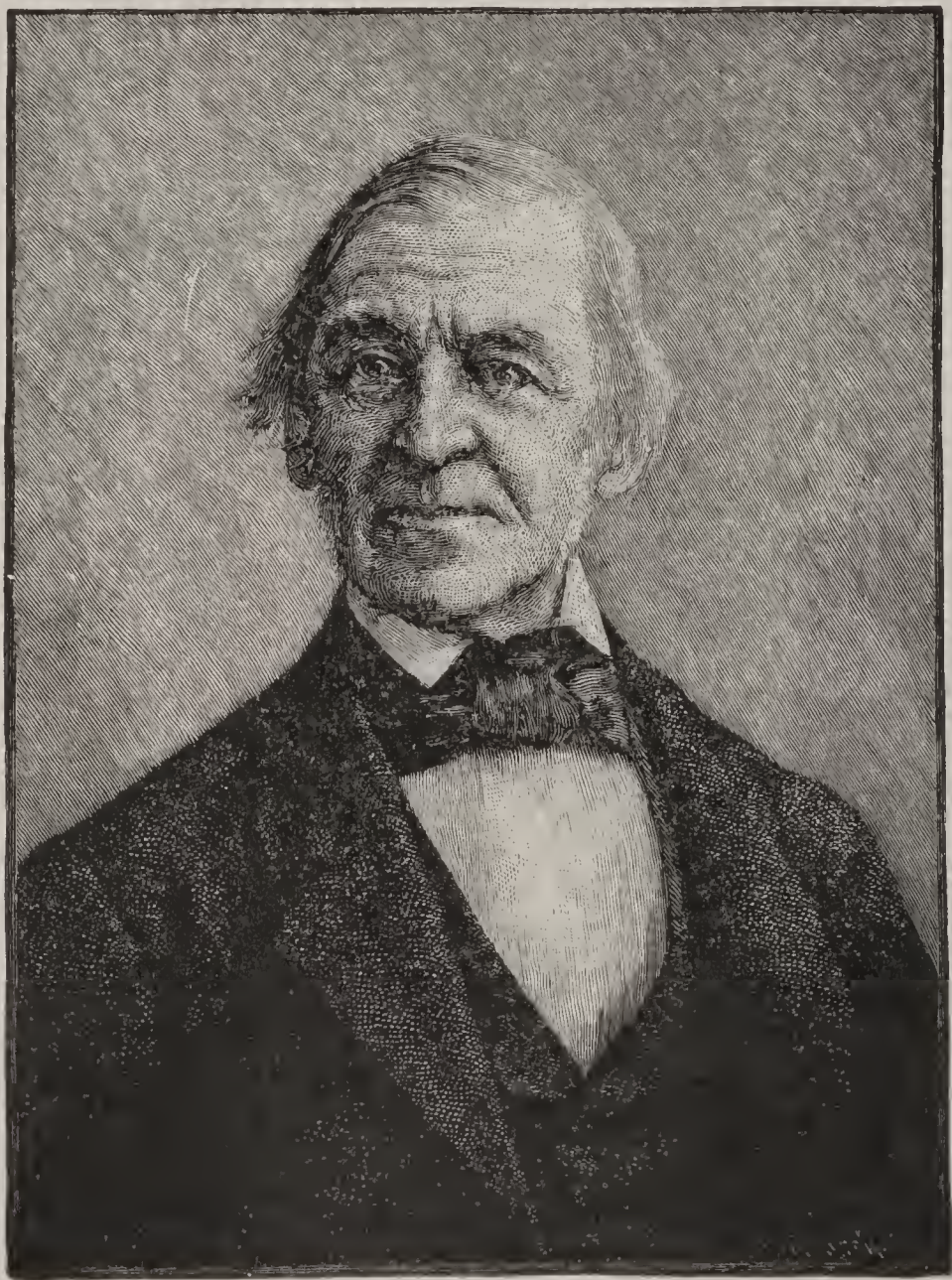
the United Netherlands," a work of great value, and in 1874 appeared his "Life of John Barneveld." Mr. Motley was Minister to Austria from 1861 to 1867, and to England from 1869 to 1875.

Francis Parkman, born in 1823, died in 1893, was at the time of his death the foremost American historian. His works relate chiefly to the rise and fall of French power in America, and are characterized by a graphic, picturesque style and thorough impartiality. The most important are "The Conspiracy of Pontiac,"

Parkman

PERIOD VII "Pioneers of France in the New World," "The Discovery of the
 THE NEW GREAT WEST," "The Jesuits in North America," "The Old Régime
 UNITED STATES in Canada," "Count Frontenac and New France under Louis XIV.,"
 1865 "Montcalm and Wolfe," and "A Half-Century Conflict."
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George Bancroft, born in 1800, died in 1891, was the greatest of all American historians. Possessing abundant means, he was grad-



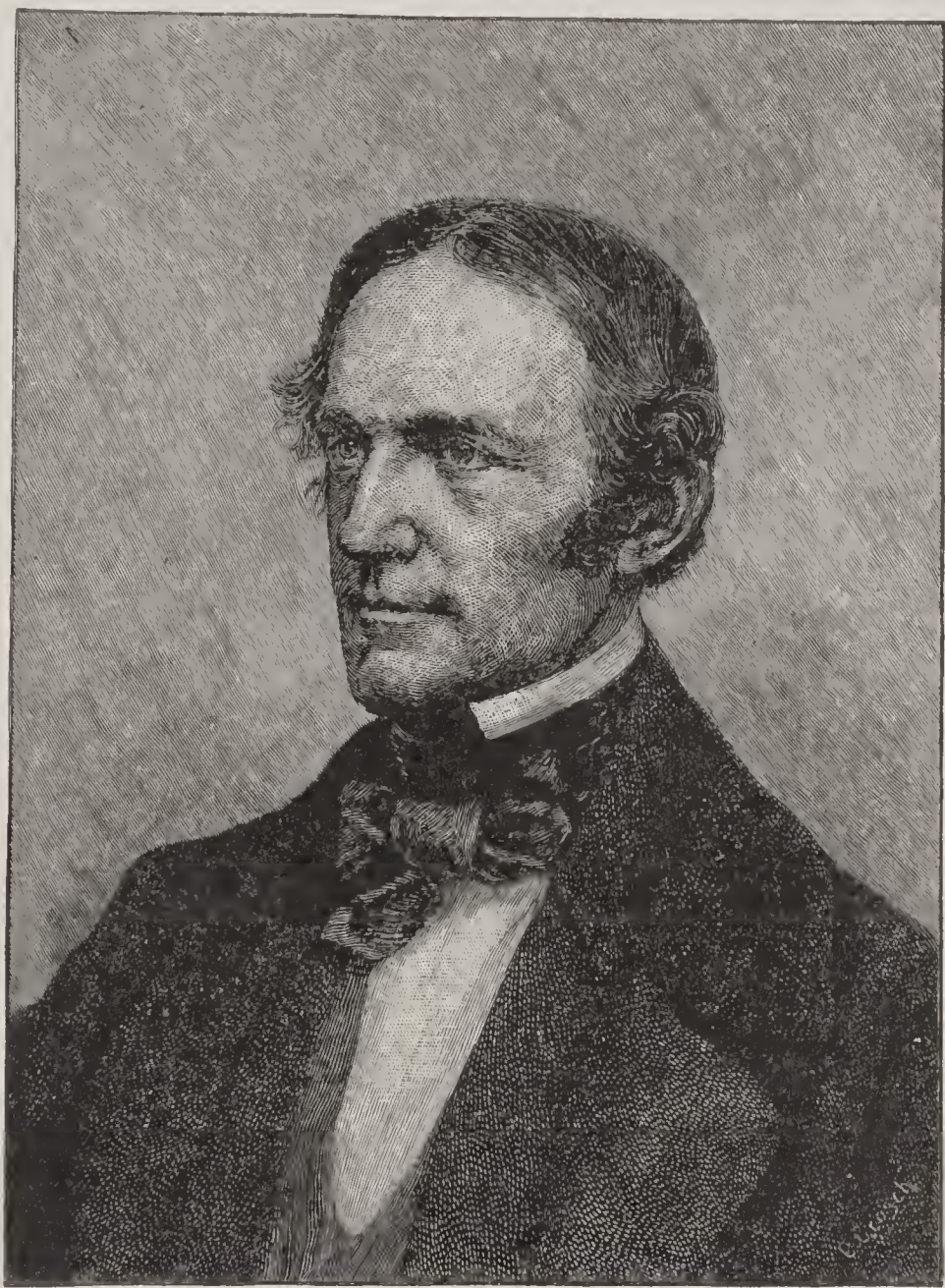
RALPH WALDO EMERSON

Bancroft uated at Harvard, studied in Germany, and upon his return to this country became prominent as a Democratic politician. The first volume of his history of the United States appeared in 1834 and quickly attained great popularity. The remaining volumes of this monumental work were regularly published until 1882. Although it stops before reaching our modern stage of development, it forms a magnificent library of itself of incalculable value to all students of the history of our country.

Mr. Bancroft was Secretary of the Navy under President Polk, 1845-1846, established the Naval Academy at Annapolis in 1845, and in 1846 caused the seizure of California by Commodore Sloat. From 1846 to 1849 he was Minister to Great Britain, and from 1867 to 1874 Minister to Germany.

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John Fiske, born in 1842, has made many notable contributions to



WILLIAM H. PRESCOTT

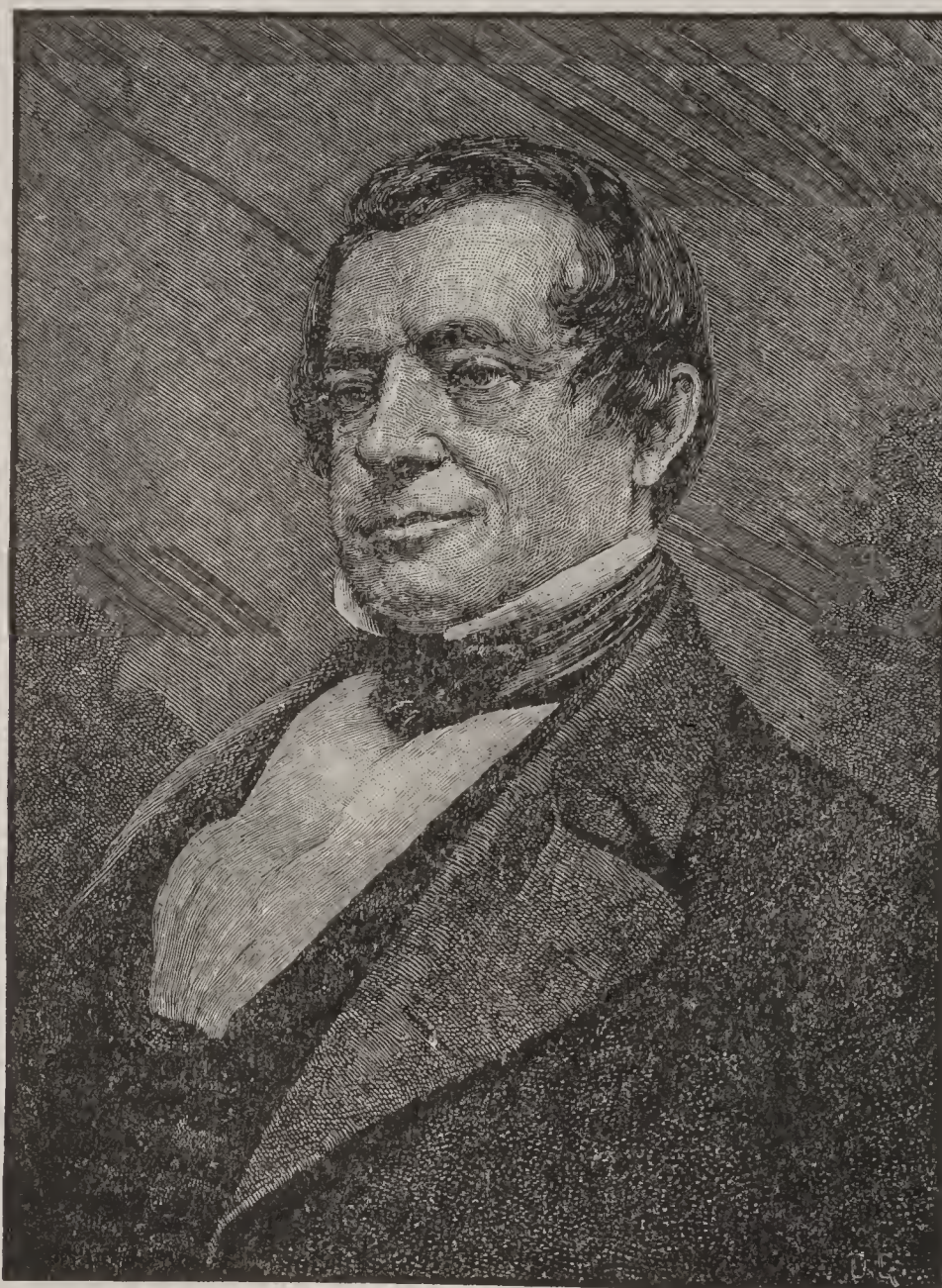
the theory of evolution, and is a brilliant and acceptable lecturer on American history in England and the United States. His works are marked by great thoughtfulness and ability, and include "The Critical Period of American History," "The Beginnings of New England," "Civil Government in the United States," "The Discovery and Spanish Conquest of America," and "The American Revolution."

Fiske

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Washington Irving, born in 1783, died in 1859, issued in 1807, in partnership with his brother, the publication *Salmagundi*, whose vivacity roused general curiosity and admiration. In 1808 appeared his "Knickerbocker History of New York," one of the most humorous works that has ever appeared in any language. His



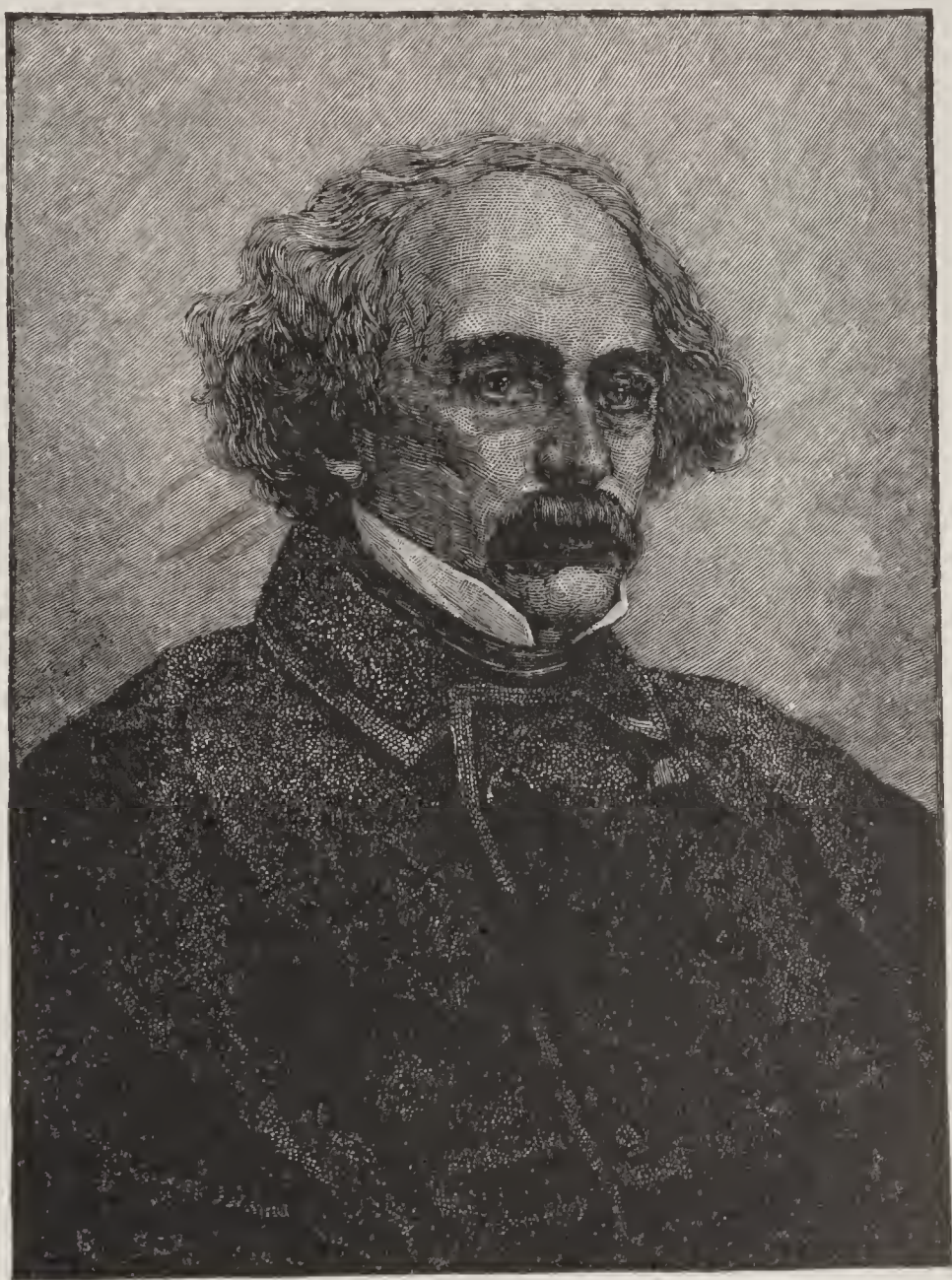
WASHINGTON IRVING

Irving "Sketch-Book," published in 1819, achieved a marked success. Then followed "Tales of a Traveller," "Life of Columbus," "The Conquest of Granada," and "The Alhambra," all of which added to and strengthened his reputation. His "Life of Washington," published in five volumes in 1855, is his most ambitious work. As an historian Irving lacks originality, but the smooth, exquisite grace of his style is a continual delight, fully the equal of Goldsmith, and surpassing perhaps that of any other American writer. The great

popularity of Irving in Europe and his native country was not wholly due to the charm of his writings, but partly to his genial personality, which left him at his death without an enemy. He was secretary of legation in London from 1829 to 1832, and Minister to Spain from 1842 to 1846.

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Fitz-Greene Halleck, born in 1790, died in 1867, was one of the



NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE

most graceful and polished of our minor poets. He served as counting-room clerk for John Jacob Astor from 1811 to 1849. He was associated in 1819 with Joseph Rodman Drake in publishing the *Croakers*. His most widely known poems are "Marco Bozzaris," "Twilight," "Fanny," "Address to Red Jacket," and "Young America."

Halleck

Edgar Allan Poe, born in 1809, died in 1849, was a remarkable and erratic genius. He was a cadet for a time at the Military

Poe

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Academy at West Point, but became a wanderer, subject to varying moods and addicted at times to the wildest excesses. His death in a Baltimore hospital was due to his unfortunate weakness for strong drink, which seemed at times uncontrollable. As a critic he was incisive, sarcastic, and merciless. Many of his sketches displayed a



JAMES FENIMORE COOPER

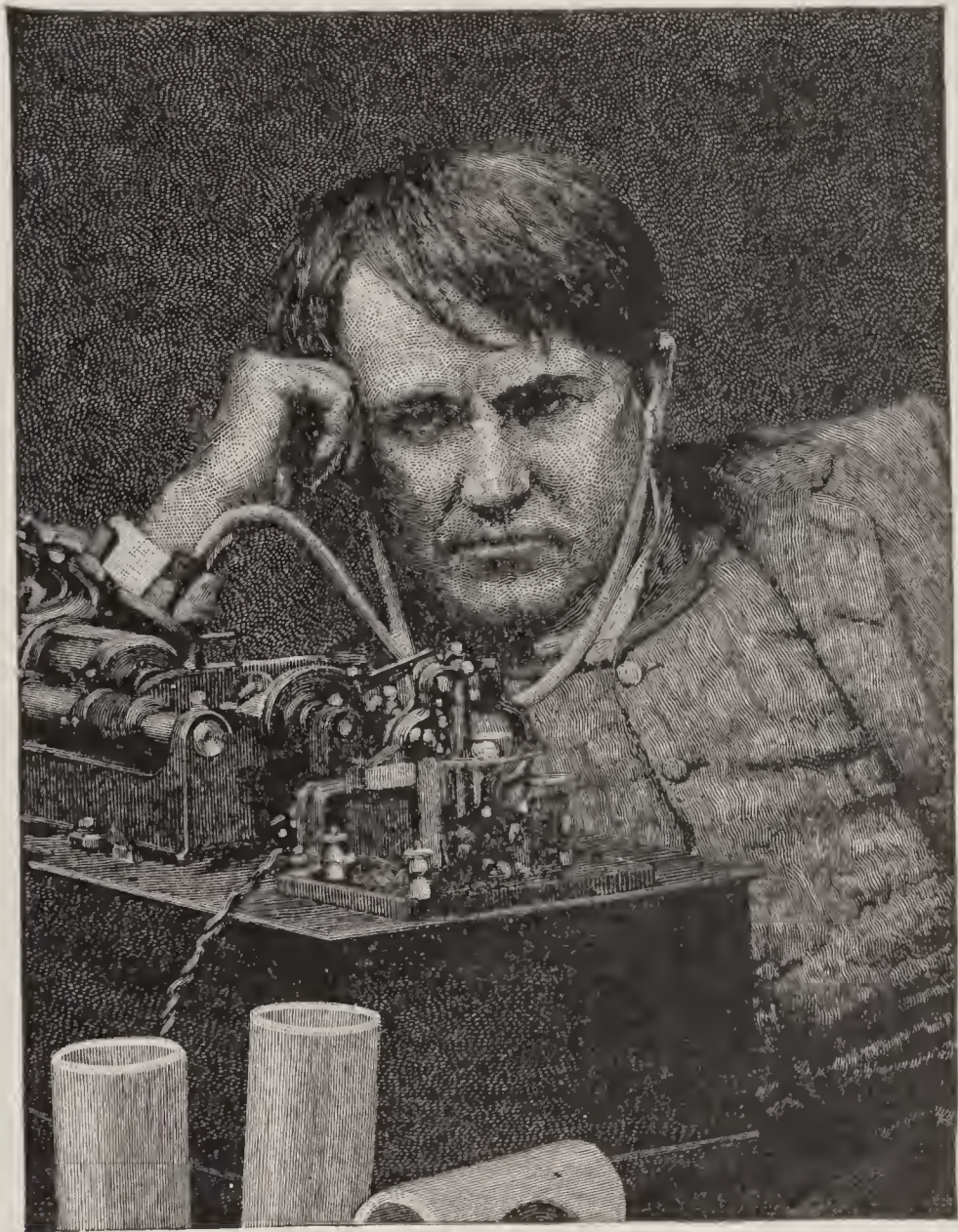
gloomy, weird power united with wonderful grace and ingenuity. His most widely known poems are "The Raven" and "Annabel Lee."

Haw-
thorne

Nathaniel Hawthorne, born in 1804, died in 1864, was the most gifted of all American writers of romance. His perfect style renders his works classics that may well serve as models for those who come after him. He wrote at first for various periodicals, but his "Twice-Told Tales," published in 1837, and his "Scarlet Letter" in 1849, elevated his name beyond rivalry. He was a classmate and

intimate friend of President Pierce, who appointed him Consul to Liverpool in 1853, he retaining the office until the close of the Presidential term. It is a fact not generally known that Hawthorne was the author of the educational and juvenile works which appeared under the pen name of "Peter Parley" (S. G. Goodrich). Hawthorne

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Copyright

THOMAS A. EDISON

wrote them when a young man, but never made any claim to their authorship.

James Fenimore Cooper, born in 1789, died in 1851, became famous through his romances of American history. He entered the navy in 1801 and resigned in 1811. He was thirty years of age before he seemed to suspect his latent powers. Then, it is said, he was so wearied one day with a novel he was reading, that he expressed the belief that he could do better work himself. The result was "The Spy," one of the finest of all historical romances. This

Feni-
more
Cooper

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was followed in time by the "Leatherstocking Tales," with others of less merit, some of which did not add to his reputation. His "Leatherstocking Tales," however, glow with the very poetry of the woods. One seems to scent the fragrance of the wild flowers, the odor of the bark, and to hear the sighing of the wind among the branches, the plash of the mountain streams, the cry of the wolf, the honk of the goose high in air, and the stealthy signals of the red men. His Indians and "Leatherstocking" himself are idealized, but they are none the less fascinating on that account, while his admirable style and purity of sentiment give his works a place in American literature which they will hold for generations to come.

Simms

William Gilmore Simms, born in 1806, died in 1870, was the most prominent author of the South during the first half of the nineteenth century. He was an intense South Carolinian, though strongly opposed to nullification in 1832, and an ardent disunionist in 1860. The best of his poems is "Atlantis, a Tale of the Sea." He wrote a large number of romances, chiefly illustrative of Southern life, contributed many vigorous editorials to leading papers of his State, and was diligent with his pen to the last. Some of his work shows haste, but he possessed great virility and earned a creditable place in literature. Mr. Simms had the finest library in the South, but General Sherman, on his way from Atlanta to the sea, burned every volume, as well as the mansion and its furniture. "All that I saved," said Simms to the writer, "was a barrel of papers that happened to be at a neighbor's house." *

Turning from literature to the field of invention, it may be said that we enter upon a domain that is boundless. Vast fortunes have been made and equally vast fortunes await the men and women able to evolve successful and practical ideas. The Americans are a nation of inventors, as is proven by the fact that, since the establishment of the patent office in 1836, the number of patents granted down to the year 1897 is more than 600,000.

Peter Cooper

Peter Cooper, born in 1791, and died in 1883, was noted as a philanthropist, but he greatly aided in the industrial development of the United States, being identified, as has been shown, with the introduction of the locomotive in this country. In 1854-59 he

* "Boys," said Sherman, when the border of the Palmetto State was crossed, "we're now in South Carolina, which began this war; don't forget it"; and the soldiers kept the fact in mind.

erected the "Cooper Union for the Advancement of Science and Art," in which the working-people receive free instruction. Mr. Cooper was the Presidential nominee of the National Independent Party in 1876. His quaint figure was familiar for years in the city of New York, where his integrity of character and his liberal, practical charity made him loved by the poor and respected by all.

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Charles Goodyear, born in 1800, died in 1860, succeeded, after long experimenting, in discovering the vulcanizing process by which india-rubber is rendered useful—an invention that has proved worth many millions.

Good-
year

Samuel F. B. Morse, born in 1791, died in 1872, was the inventor, as related elsewhere, of the electromagnetic telegraph, an invention so important that it marked an era in the progress of civilization.

Morse

Eli Whitney, born in 1765, died in 1825, produced the cotton-gin, which wrought an industrial revolution in the South. In 1791 the exportation of cotton was 189,500 pounds, but under the impulse of the cotton-gin it increased in twelve years to 41,000,000 pounds. It has been said that but for the cotton-gin there never would have been a Civil War, since the South otherwise could not have gained the wealth and power to enter upon that mighty struggle. Whitney's patents were so enormously valuable that several States refused to pay him his just royalties, and Congress would not grant the patents to which he was entitled. He established near New Haven, in 1798, the first arms factory in the United States, and furnished the Government with a superior quality of firearms. He was the first manufacturer to construct the parts of guns after one unvarying model, so that any damaged part could be replaced from the general stock.

Whitney

Samuel Colt, born in 1814, died in 1862, ran away to sea when a boy, and when fifteen years old whittled out a model of his celebrated revolver. This was the germ of his vast enterprise and wealth, and made him famous the world over. His immense armories for the manufacture of revolvers were erected at Hartford in 1852.

Colt

Richard M. Hoe, born in 1812, died in 1866, made improvements and inventions in perfecting printing-presses that approach the marvellous. His most striking achievement is a press that will print, cut, and fold a sheet of paper a sixth of a mile long in the space of a single minute.

Hoe

Cyrus West Field, born in 1819, died in 1892, was a business man

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- Field** in New York until 1853. His success in carrying out his idea of laying a submarine cable across the Atlantic in 1858 has been told elsewhere. The New York, Newfoundland and London Telegraph Company that he formed consisted of Peter Cooper, Moses Taylor, Marshall Roberts, and Chandler White. Messages passed back and forth, but the cable utterly failed at the end of a few weeks. Undaunted, Mr. Field organized the Atlantic Telegraph Company, and in 1866 the submarine cable triumphed. Mr. Field received the honors due him both at home and abroad, and afterwards greatly aided in improving the rapid-transit system of New York.
- Howe** The sewing-machine is one of the most useful inventions of the age. There were crude attempts at the construction of such a machine during the early years of the century, but the first successful machine was made in 1846 by Elias Howe, who was born in 1819 and died in 1867. Like Professor Morse, Howe almost suffered the pangs of starvation while working at his invention, but he persevered and became a multi-millionaire who loaned large sums of money to the Government during the Civil War. He served in a Connecticut regiment, and, as told elsewhere, it was he who advanced funds sufficient to pay several months' arrears to all the members of his regiment.
- McCormick** Cyrus H. McCormick, born in 1809, died in 1884, invented the reaping-machine in 1831. This, after a number of improvements, proved so far-reaching in its benefits that it gave a distinct impulse to agricultural development and added untold value to hundreds of thousands of acres of waste land.
- The Steam-boat** The history of the steamboat and the connection of Robert Fulton therewith has been fully given. While yielding Fulton full credit for his work, there can be no question that John Fitch, born in 1743 and died in 1798, was much earlier than he in the field, one of his boats on the Delaware being propelled by steam in 1785, while James Rumsey, born in the same year in Maryland, invented a steamboat in 1786, but died in 1792, before his experiments were completed.
- Bell** Alexander Graham Bell, the inventor of the telephone, was born in Scotland in 1847, and first exhibited his invention in Philadelphia in 1876.
- Thomas Alvin Edison, born in 1847, is perhaps the most wonderful inventor and discoverer of the age. A poor newsboy on a rail-

way train, rendered partially deaf by the cuffings received from an employee made indignant by the lad's persistent experimenting with chemicals in the baggage-car, he still persisted until he astonished the world by electrical inventions which a few years ago would have been considered as among the fancies of the wildest dreamers. Some of his astounding achievements include the quadruplex system of telegraphy, the carbon telephone, the phonograph, the microphone, the vinetoscope, the microtasimeter, and the kinetoscope. Mr. Edison is a tireless student and worker, constantly delving into the mysterious recesses of nature, and certain, if his life is spared, to make still more amazing discoveries and inventions. In this great field he has the help of the Servian professor, Nikola Tesla, whose inventive genius is scarcely second to that of Edison himself. Tesla's most astounding discovery was announced in June, 1897. It was that after years of study and experimentation he had solved the problem of telegraphing without wires. Although making slow but steady progress, and hopeful from the first, Tesla modestly withheld any positive announcement until he had actually sent and received signals through the earth at a distance of twenty miles. Mr. Tesla believes that a result of immeasurable importance will follow this achievement: that is, the ability to transmit power from place to place. If ever the marvellous dream of communicating with the inhabitants of other worlds is realized it will be through this wonderful discovery.

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Edison

Tesla

The Constitution gives to Congress the power to issue patents for useful inventions. Previous to the adoption of the Constitution several patents had been issued by the States. The first patent law was passed in 1790, and applied equally to foreigners and citizens, the duration of the patent being fourteen years. In 1793 the act was restricted to citizens only, the fee was made thirty dollars, and no State was allowed to grant patents. In 1836 the Patent Office or Bureau was created, the chief officer being the commissioner of patents. The Patent Office was transferred to the Department of the Interior in 1849, when the latter was created. A law was passed in 1836 requiring a preliminary examination to determine the novelty and patentability of inventions. The law of 1842 made the term of a patent seven years, afterwards extended to seventeen years. In 1870 a law was enacted granting patents to any person who can prove the newness and usefulness of his invention, upon the payment

Patents

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rights

of a stated fee. Models are no longer required. The total cost of securing a patent is from \$60 to \$70.

The history of the copyright laws is somewhat similar to that of patents, the States having issued copyright privileges previous to the adoption of the Constitution. The first law, 1790, gave to authors exclusive rights to their works for fourteen years, with the right of renewal for the same term. In 1831 the term was made twenty-eight years, with the right of renewal for fourteen years, this law being still in force. A publisher to whom an author sells his work can copyright it for twenty-eight years, but at the end of that period the right of renewal reverts to the author or his heirs, the production becoming his or their exclusive property. At the end of forty-two years from the date of the first copyright all copyrights lapse and the works become public property.

In 1891 Congress gave the privileges of copyright to foreigners of nations whose governments accord American citizens similar privileges, the reciprocity being determined by proclamation of the President. It was immediately extended to Great Britain, France, Belgium, and Switzerland, and afterwards to Germany and Italy. The need of a direct, plainly expressed international copyright law has long been recognized, and action looking to that end has been under way for a long time.

Wash-
ington
Monu-
ment in
Philadel-
phia

The monument which was unveiled to the memory of Washington, in Fairmount Park, Philadelphia, May 15, 1897, is the most important group of sculpture ever raised in America. Upon a platform, six feet six inches in height, and reached from four sides by thirteen steps, symbolical of the thirteen original States, stands a pedestal bearing an equestrian statue of the Father of his Country. He is represented in the colonial uniform of the American army, with a large military cloak enveloping his superb figure. In his left hand he holds the reins of his horse, one of the animal's fore-feet being raised in the act of moving. The massive figure is dignified, artistic, and impressive.

The fountains at the four corners of the platform, served by allegorical figures of American Indians, represent four rivers, the Delaware, Hudson, Potomac, and the Mississippi. Each of these fountains is guarded on the sides by typical American animals, eight in all. Two allegorical figures are at the front and back of the pedestal. The one on the front represents America seated, and holding



Copyright 1897, by W. H. Rau

THE WASHINGTON MONUMENT, FAIRMOUNT PARK, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

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in one hand a cornucopia; in the other a trident and having at her feet chains just cast off, while she is in the act of receiving from her victorious sons the trophies of her conquest. Below the group is an eagle supporting the arms of the United States. The group in the back depicts America arousing her sons to a sense of their slavery. The arms of Pennsylvania are below. On the sides of the pedestal are two bas-reliefs, one representing the march of the American army, the other a Western-bound emigrant train. The pedestal bears on one side the inscription, "Sic Semper Tyrannis," and "Per Aspera ad Astra"; on the other, "Westward the Star of Empire Takes Its Way." Surrounding the upper portion of the pedestal are the words: "Erected by the State Society of the Cincinnati of Pennsylvania." The statue, the figures and the bas-relief, and all the ornamentations are of bronze, and the platform, pedestal, etc., of Swedish granite.

History
of the
Monu-
ment

The ground plan of the monument is 61 feet by 74 feet, the pedestal 17 feet by 30 feet, and the total height of the monument 44 feet. The design is by Prof. Rudolph Siemering, the renowned sculptor of Berlin. The names engraved on the monument are: Lincoln, Irvine, Jay, Dickinson, Mühlenberg, Jefferson, Franklin, Hamilton, Clinton, Knox, Pinckney, Hazen, Putnam, Wayne, Steuben, Butler, Lafayette, St. Clair, Greene, Morgan, Kosciusko, Schuyler, Jones, Dale, and Barry (the last three representing the navy), Biddle, Montgomery, Haslett, Kirkwood, Mifflin, Rochambeau, Varnum, Sullivan, Cadwalader, Mercer, Smallwood, Sterling, Nash, Warren, De Kalb, and Moultrie.

The collection of subscriptions for this monument was begun in 1811 by soldiers who had fought under Washington. On the 4th of July of that year, the Society of the Cincinnati met in the State House and took steps to set on foot the erection of a monument which should fittingly commemorate the character and virtues of Washington. In response to their appeal, \$2,000 was subscribed. This by careful handling, investment, and additions grew to the handsome sum of \$280,000.

Unveiled
by Presi-
dent Mc-
Kinley

On Saturday, May 15th, amid an imposing military display, the monument was unveiled by President McKinley. At two o'clock Bishop Whitaker, of Pennsylvania, opened the ceremonies with prayer. An address followed by Major William Wayne, president of the state and general societies of the Cincinnati. President

McKinley then pulled the cord which unveiled the figure of Wash-
ington. Immediately the national salute was fired by the war-ves-
sels in the Delaware and the artillery. President McKinley then
said :

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“FELLOW-CITIZENS: There is a peculiar and tender sentiment
connected with this memorial. It expresses not only the gratitude
and reverence of the living, but is a testimonial of affection and
homage from the dead.

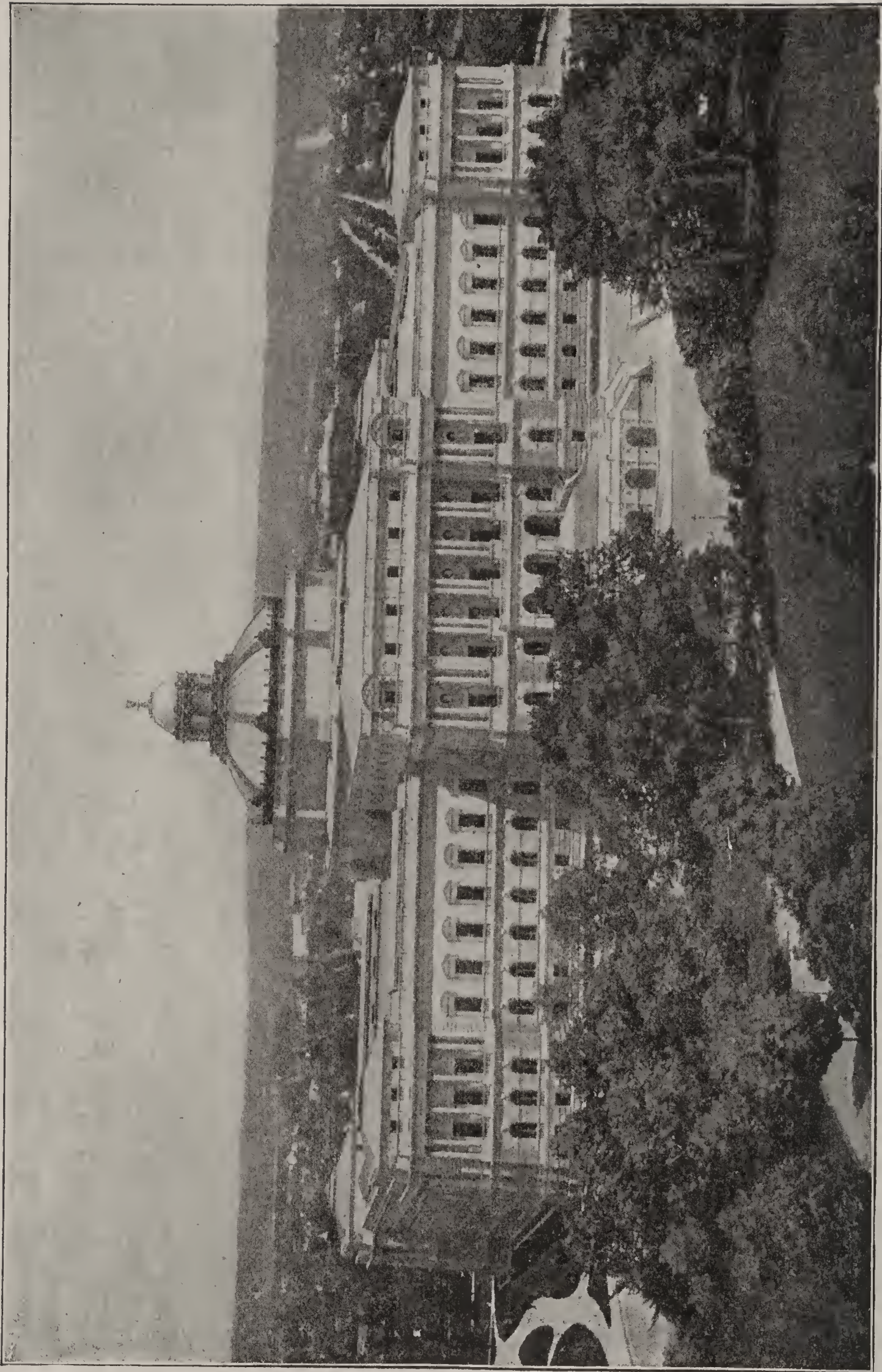
“The comrades of Washington projected this monument. Their
love inspired it. Their contributions helped to build it. Past and
present share in its completion, and future generations will profit by
its lessons.

“To participate in the dedication of such a monument is a rare
and precious privilege. Every monument to Washington is a tribute
to patriotism. Every statute and shaft to his memory helps to in-
culcate love of country, encourage loyalty, and establish a better
citizenship. God bless every undertaking which revives patriotism
and rebukes the indifferent and lawless ! A critical study of Wash-
ington's career only enhances our estimation of his vast and varied
abilities.

“As commander-in-chief of the Colonial Armies from the begin-
ning of the war to the proclamation of peace, as President of the
convention which framed the Constitution of the United States, and
as the first President of the United States under that Constitution,
Washington has a distinction differing from that of all other illus-
trious Americans. No other name bears or can bear such a relation
to the Government. Not only by his military genius—his patience,
his sagacity, his courage, and his skill—was our national independ-
ence won, but he helped in largest measure to draft the chart by
which the nation was guided, and he was the first chosen of the
people to put in motion the new Government.

Speech
of the
Presi-
dent

“His was not the boldness of martial display or the charm of
captivating oratory, but his calm and steady judgment won men's
support and commanded their confidence by appealing to their best
and noblest aspirations. And withal Washington was ever so
modest that at no time in his career did his personality seem in the
least intrusive. He was above the temptation of power. He
spurned the suggested crown. He would have no honor which the
people did not bestow.



THE NEW CONGRESSIONAL LIBRARY BUILDING , WASHINGTON, D. C.

“An interesting fact—and one which I love to recall—is that the only time Washington formally addressed the Constitutional Convention during all its sessions over which he presided in this city, he appealed for a larger representation of the people in the national House of Representatives, and his appeal was instantly heeded. Thus was he ever keenly watchful of the rights of the people in whose hands was the destiny of our Government then and now.

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“Masterful as were his military campaigns, his civil administration commands equal admiration. His foresight was marvellous; his conception of the philosophy of government, his insistence upon the necessity of education, morality, and enlightened citizenship to the progress and permanence of the republic, cannot be contemplated even at this period without filling us with astonishment at the breadth of his comprehension and the sweep of his vision.

Wash-
ington's
States-
manship

“His was no narrow view of government. The immediate present was not his sole concern, but our future good his constant theme of study. He blazed the path of liberty. He laid the foundation upon which we have grown from weak and scattered colonial governments to a united republic whose domains and power, as well as whose liberty and freedom, have become the admiration of the world. Distance and time have not detracted from the fame and force of his achievements or diminished the grandeur of his life and work. Great deeds do not stop in their growth, and those of Washington will expand in their influence in all the centuries to follow.

“The bequest Washington has made to civilization is rich beyond computation. The obligations under which he has placed mankind are sacred and commanding. The responsibility he has left for the American people to preserve and perfect what he accomplished is exacting and solemn. Let us rejoice in every new evidence that the people realize what they enjoy and cherish with affection the illustrious heroes of Revolutionary story, whose valor and sacrifices made us a nation. They live in us and their memory will help us keep the covenant entered into for the maintenance of the freest government of earth.

“The nation and the name of Washington are inseparable. One is linked indissolubly with the other. Both are glorious, both triumphant. Washington lives, and will live, because what he did was for the exaltation of man, the enthronement of conscience, and the

Our Re-
sponsi-
bility

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establishment of a government which recognizes all the governed. And so, too, will the nation live victorious over all obstacles, adhering to the immortal principles which Washington taught and Lincoln sustained."

An impressive illustration of American genius is the new Congressional Library Building recently completed in Washington. It is of New Hampshire granite and stands on the eastern heights of



THE NEW CONGRESSIONAL LIBRARY--ROTUNDA

the city, opposite the east front of the Capitol. The great structure covers nearly four acres, and within its vast interior is room for twice as many books as are contained in the largest library in the world.

The main entrance is by three arched doorways, leading into a magnificent entrance hall, lined with polished marble. Two flights of marble stairs lead upward to the right and left, the balustrades, in high relief, representing a series of cherubs, depicting science, art, industry, and the various pursuits of man. Opposite the entrance doors, between the two flights of stairs, is a portal of marble, leading to the rotunda or reading-room. The beautiful sculptured figures of a youth and an old man are the work of Olin L. Warner, of

New York. The library is planned as a central circular reading-room, flanked on the north and south by two halls, in each of which is a book-stack of iron and marble extending upward nine stories, and capable of holding a million volumes each. On the eastern side a smaller book-stack will hold a quarter of a million volumes, with room for as many more in alcoves around the rotunda. The building will answer all the needs of our country for more than a hundred years to come.

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The cost of the structure was limited to \$6,000,000, and none but American artists were employed to decorate the walls. The octagonal reading-room is a hundred feet in diameter, with the richly crna-mented dome one hundred and twenty-five feet above the mosaic pavement.

The Congressional Library contains about seven hundred thousand volumes, and ranks fifth among the great libraries of the world. It was established during the Presidency of Jefferson, but the modest collection went up in smoke when the British burned Washington in the summer of 1814. Congress promptly voted money for the purchase of new books, and for rebuilding. In 1851 a second fire destroyed a part of the library and thirty-five thousand volumes.

Number
of
Volumes

The work of carrying out the plan of the building came under the charge of General Casey, chief of engineers, in October, 1888, and in December, 1896, Mr. Green, his successor, reported the structure as "very nearly completed in all particulars." For ages to come the Congressional Library will form one of the grandest educational landmarks in the history of our country.

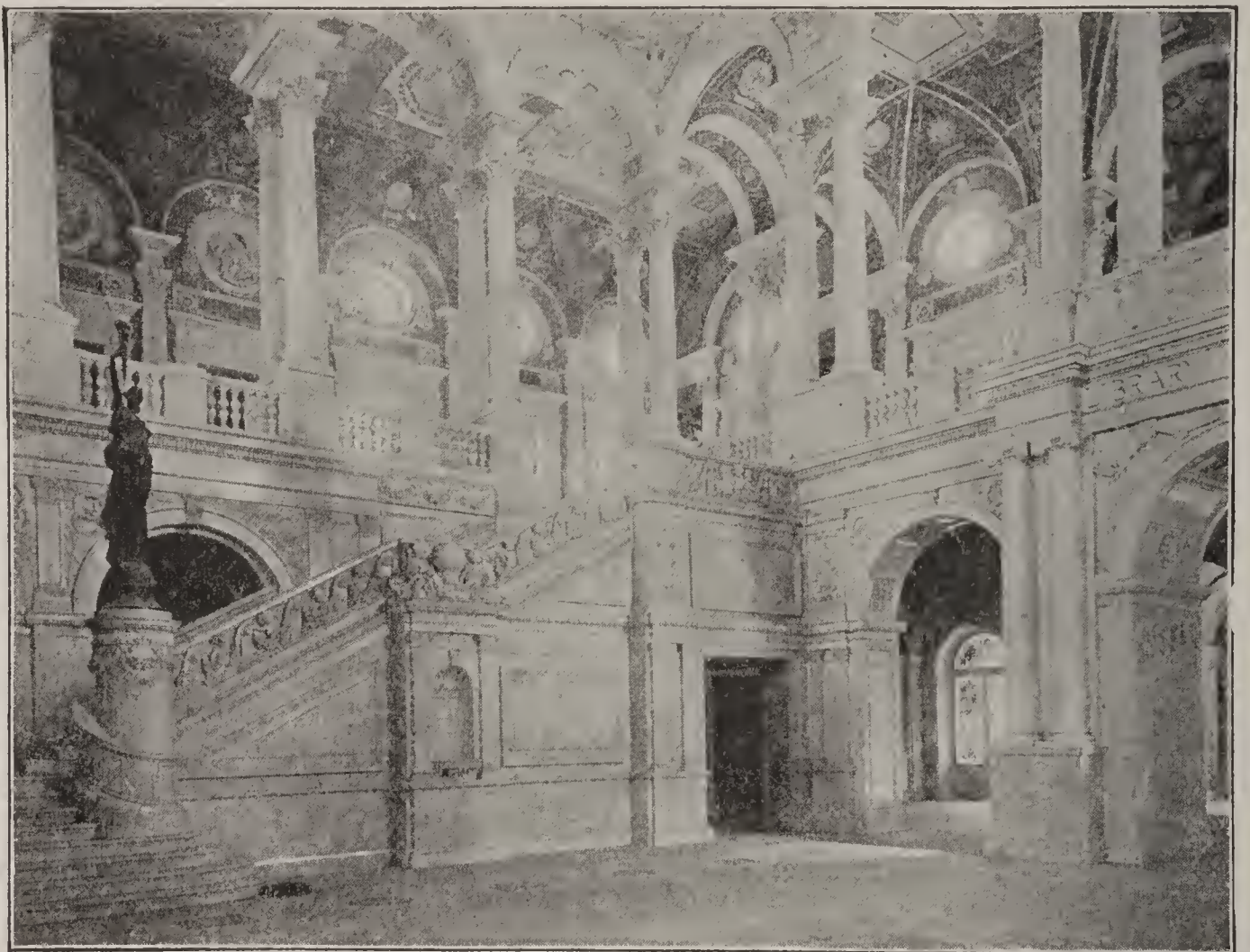
A pleasing incident of the closing days of Ambassador Bayard in England was the return to him of the famous log of the *Mayflower*, which interesting document was delivered by Mr. Bayard to Governor Wolcott in Boston, on May 26, 1897, the ceremonies taking place before a distinguished gathering in the House of Representatives, including both branches of the legislature and the executive council. Senator Bradford, of Hampden, a lineal descendant of the author of the manuscript history, offered a resolution of thanks to the Bishop of London, the English Consistorial Court, and the Queen of Great Britain for restoring the manuscript, which resolution was unanimously adopted.

The
May-
flower
Log

The title of this historical document is a misnomer, for in truth, so far as known, there has never been a log of the *Mayflower*. The

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manuscript in the original numbers two hundred and seventy pages, and the only title which it bears is "Of Plimouth Plantation." It was written by William Bradford, one of the passengers on the *Mayflower*, and the second governor of the colony of Massachusetts. Cotton Mather says of him: "He was a person for study as well as action; and hence, notwithstanding the difficulties through which he passed in his youth, he attained unto a notable skill in languages;



THE NEW CONGRESSIONAL LIBRARY—ENTRANCE HALL

the Dutch tongue was almost as vernacular to him as the English; the French tongue he could also manage; the Latin and Greek he had mastered, but the Hebrew he most of all studied. But the crown of all was his holy, prayerful, watchful, and fruitful walk with God, wherein he was very exemplary." He was born on March 19, 1588, and died on May 9, 1657.

Period
 Covered

The "History of the Plymouth Plantation" covers the period from 1602 to 1646, and Bradford's work, as will be noted, is improperly called the "Log of the *Mayflower*." He thus opens his history:

"And first of ye occasion and indusments thereunto: the which that I may truly unfold, I must begine at ye very roote & rise of ye

same The which I shall endeavor to manifest in a plaine stile, with singuler regard unto ye simple trueth in all things, at least as near as my slender judgements can attaine the same."

Following this is an account of the rise and religious ideas of the people with whom Bradford cast his lot, their removal to Holland, their stay there, and their decision to seek a home in the New World. He tells of the start of the *Speedwell* and the *Mayflower*, the return of the former and the voyage of the latter. The ninth chapter describes "their voyage and how they passed ye sea & of their safe arrivale at Cape Codd." Only a few pages are devoted to an account of the voyage of the *Mayflower*.

Another common error is the impression that the "Log" was almost unknown. The New England historians drew freely upon it, Hutchinson having used it as late as 1767. While in the hands of Prince, another historian, in 1758, it was deposited in the New England Library in the tower of the Old South Church, which was used by the British soldiers as a riding-school during their occupancy of Boston. When they left they took the manuscript with them, and also Governor Bradford's letter-book, most of which was destroyed. It was believed that "Bradford's History of the Plymouth Plantation" had shared this fate; but when, in 1846, Dr. Samuel Wilberforce then Lord Bishop of Oxford, published his history of the Protestant Episcopal Church in America, a number of New England scholars recognized certain portions as extracts from the Bradford manuscripts. A correspondence with the bishop of London followed, and the long-lost "Log of the *Mayflower*" was once more brought to light. It was copied by permission, and the whole history published in 1856, with copious annotations.

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Pub-
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CHAPTER XCVI

M'KINLEY'S ADMINISTRATION—1897—(CONTINUED)

[*Authorities* : To any one who sees in passing events signs of things that are to come, perhaps nothing connected with the events described in this chapter has deeper significance than the words, "Let us have peace." They fell from the lips of Grant when he was at the zenith of his power. Carved in granite they look down upon the silence of his final rest. They are instinct with philosophy, and express a universal yearning for "Peace on earth and good will towards men." And this peace is coming. Great as are the achievements of such leaders of men as he who rests in that beautiful mausoleum, they are only means to an end. They do not delay, but hasten the approach of the time when all men shall be at peace. They stimulate those discoveries in the art of warfare that, sooner or later, will convert into monuments of human folly the mighty battle-ships of which nations are now so proud, and upon which they so confidently rely. The means for human destruction will become so effective as to render war only national folly. Whether the fame of the great captains of the world will be dimmed by these new conditions might perhaps be an interesting question for speculation.

The authorities for the matter in this chapter are so numerous and so well known to the reader that it is not deemed necessary to cite them.]



Comb of Gen'l Grant N.Y. City

Where
the
Union
Leaders
are
Buried

THE bones of the leaders of the great Civil War are widely scattered. Sherman sleeps on the banks of the Mississippi; Sheridan at Arlington, across the Potomac from Washington; Major Anderson, of Fort Sumter, Generals Kilpatrick, Sykes, and Keyes at West Point; John A. Dix in Trinity Cemetery on Washington Heights; Frémont in Rockland Cemetery on the Hudson; McClellan at Trenton; Burnside in Rhode Island; Hooker at Cincinnati; Meade in Philadelphia; Lyon at Eastford, Conn.; Cushing (the destroyer of the *Albemarle*) in the Naval Cemetery at Annapolis; Hancock at Norristown, Pa.; Farragut at Woodlawn Cemetery, New York; Phil Kearny, the "one-armed devil," in Trinity churchyard, New York;

McPherson at Clyde, Ohio; Mansfield at Middletown, Conn.; J. F. Reynolds at Lancaster, Pa.; Logan in the National Cemetery at the Soldiers' Home, Washington; Slocum at Washington; Butler at Lowell, Mass.; Crook, the Indian fighter, Harney of the regulars, Doubleday, Gibbon, with Admirals Porter and Jenkins, and Rear-Admirals Queen, Johnson, Shufeldt, and more than a score of other heroes rest with Sheridan at Arlington.

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The little town of Lexington, Va., holds the ashes of Robert E. Lee and Stonewall Jackson, while those of Jeb Stuart and Pickett repose in the Hollywood Cemetery, Richmond. Near Westbrook, close to Richmond, lies the body of A. P. Hill. Jo Johnston was buried in Greenmount Cemetery, Baltimore; Polk underneath the chancel of St. Paul's church at Augusta, Ga.; Albert Sidney Johnston was the only army commander killed in battle; Beauregard was buried in Metarie Cemetery, New Orleans; Forrest at Elmwood Cemetery, Memphis; Semmes in New Orleans; Armistead at Gettysburg, and Garnett among the unknown dead in the same historic town.

Where
the Con-
federate
Leaders
are
Buried

General Grant will always remain the overshadowing military leader connected with the War for the Union. It was he who directed the decisive and closing campaign of that mighty struggle for the life of the nation, and a grateful republic will never fail to do honor to his memory.

The life and achievements of Grant have been so fully set forth in the preceding pages that a repetition of them is unnecessary. The following analysis of his character, however, is so clear and truthful that it deserves permanent record. It was written by Lieut.-Gen. John M. Schofield, an intimate and trusted friend of the great soldier :

“General Sherman wrote that he could not understand Grant, and doubted if Grant understood himself. A very distinguished statesman, whose name I need not mention, said to me that in his opinion there was nothing special in Grant to understand. Others have varied widely in their estimates of that extraordinary character. Yet I believe its most extraordinary quality was its extreme simplicity, so extreme that many have entirely overlooked it in their search for some deeply hidden secret to account for so great a character, unmindful of the general fact that simplicity is one of the most prominent attributes of greatness.

Scho-
field's
Estimate
of
Grant

“The greatest of all the traits of Grant's character was that

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That was his moral and intellectual honesty, integrity, sincerity,



ULYSSES S. GRANT

veracity, and justice. He was incapable of any attempt to deceive anybody, except for a legitimate purpose, as in military strategy; and above all, he was incapable of deceiving himself. He possessed

that rarest of all human faculties, the power of a perfectly accurate estimate of himself, uninfluenced by vanity, pride, ambition, flattery, or self-interest. Grant was very far from being a modest man, as that word is generally understood. His just self-esteem was as far above it as it was above flattery. The highest encomiums were accepted for what he believed them to be worth. They did not disturb his equilibrium in the slightest degree. Confiding, just, and generous to everybody else, he treated with silent contempt any suggestion that he had been unfaithful to any obligation. He was too proud to explain where his honor was questioned.

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Grant's
Self-con-
fidence

“While Grant knew his own merits as well as anybody did, he also knew his own imperfections and estimated them at their real value. For example, his inability to speak in public, which produced the impression of extreme modesty or diffidence, he accepted simply as a fact in his nature which was of little or no consequence and which he did not even care to conceal. He would not for many years even take the trouble to jot down a few words in advance, so as to be able to say something when called upon. Indeed, I believe he would have regarded it as an unworthy attempt to appear in a false light if he had made preparations in advance for an ‘extemporaneous’ speech. Even when he did in later years write some notes on the back of a dinner-card, he would take care to let everybody see that he had done so by holding the card in plain view while he read his little speech. After telling a story in which the facts had been modified somewhat to give the greater effect, which no one could enjoy more than he did, Grant would take care to explain exactly in what respects he had altered the facts for the purpose of increasing the interest in his story, so that he might not leave any wrong impression.

“When Grant’s attention was called to any mistake he had committed, he would see and admit it as quickly and unreservedly as if it had been made by anybody else, and with a smile which expressed the exact opposite of that feeling which most men are apt to show under like circumstances. His love of truth and justice was so far above all personal considerations that he showed unmistakable evidence of gratification when any error into which he might have fallen was corrected. The fact that he had made a mistake and that it was plainly pointed out to him did not produce the slightest unpleasant impression, while the further fact that no harm had resulted from

His Love
of Truth
and Jus-
tice

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his mistake gave him real pleasure. In Grant's judgment, no case in which any wrong had been done could possibly be regarded as finally settled until that wrong was righted, and if he himself had been, in any sense, a party to that wrong, he was the more earnest in his desire to see justice done. While he thus showed a total absence of any false pride of opinion or of knowledge, no man could be firmer than he in adherence to his mature judgment, nor more ear-



GENERAL GRANT'S FIRST TOMB

His
 Moral
 Courage

nest in his determination, on proper occasions, to make it understood that his opinion was his own and not borrowed from anybody else. His pride in his own mature opinion was very great; in that he was as far as possible from being a modest man. This absolute confidence in his own judgment upon any subject which he had mastered and the moral courage to take upon himself alone the highest responsibility, and to demand full authority and freedom to act according to his own judgment, without interference from anybody, added to his accurate estimate of his own ability and his clear perception of the necessity for undivided authority and responsibility in the conduct of military operations, and in all that concerns the efficiency of armies in time of war, constituted the foundation of that very great character.

“When summoned to Washington to take command of all the armies, with the rank of Lieutenant-General, he determined, before he reached the capital, that he would not accept the command under any other conditions than those above stated. His sense of honor and of loyalty to the country would not permit him to consent to be placed in a false position, one in which he could not perform the service which the country had been led to expect from him, and he had the courage to say so in unqualified terms.

“These traits of Grant’s character must now be perfectly familiar to all who have studied his history, as well as to those who enjoyed familiar intercourse with him during his life. They are the traits of character which made him, as it seems to me, a very great man, the only man of our time, so far as we know, who possessed both the character and the military ability which were, under the circumstances, indispensable in the commander of the armies which were to suppress the great rebellion.

“It has been said that Grant, like Lincoln, was a typical American, and for that reason was most beloved and respected by the people. That is true of the statesman and of the soldier, as well as of the people, if it is meant that they were the highest type, that ideal which commands the respect and admiration of the highest and best in a man’s nature, however far he may know it to be above himself. The soldiers and the people saw in Grant or in Lincoln, not one of themselves, not a plain man of the people, nor yet some superior being whom they could not understand, but the personification of their highest ideal of a citizen, soldier, or statesman, a man whose greatness they could see and understand as plainly as they could anything else under the sun. And there was no more mystery about it all in fact than there was in the popular mind.”

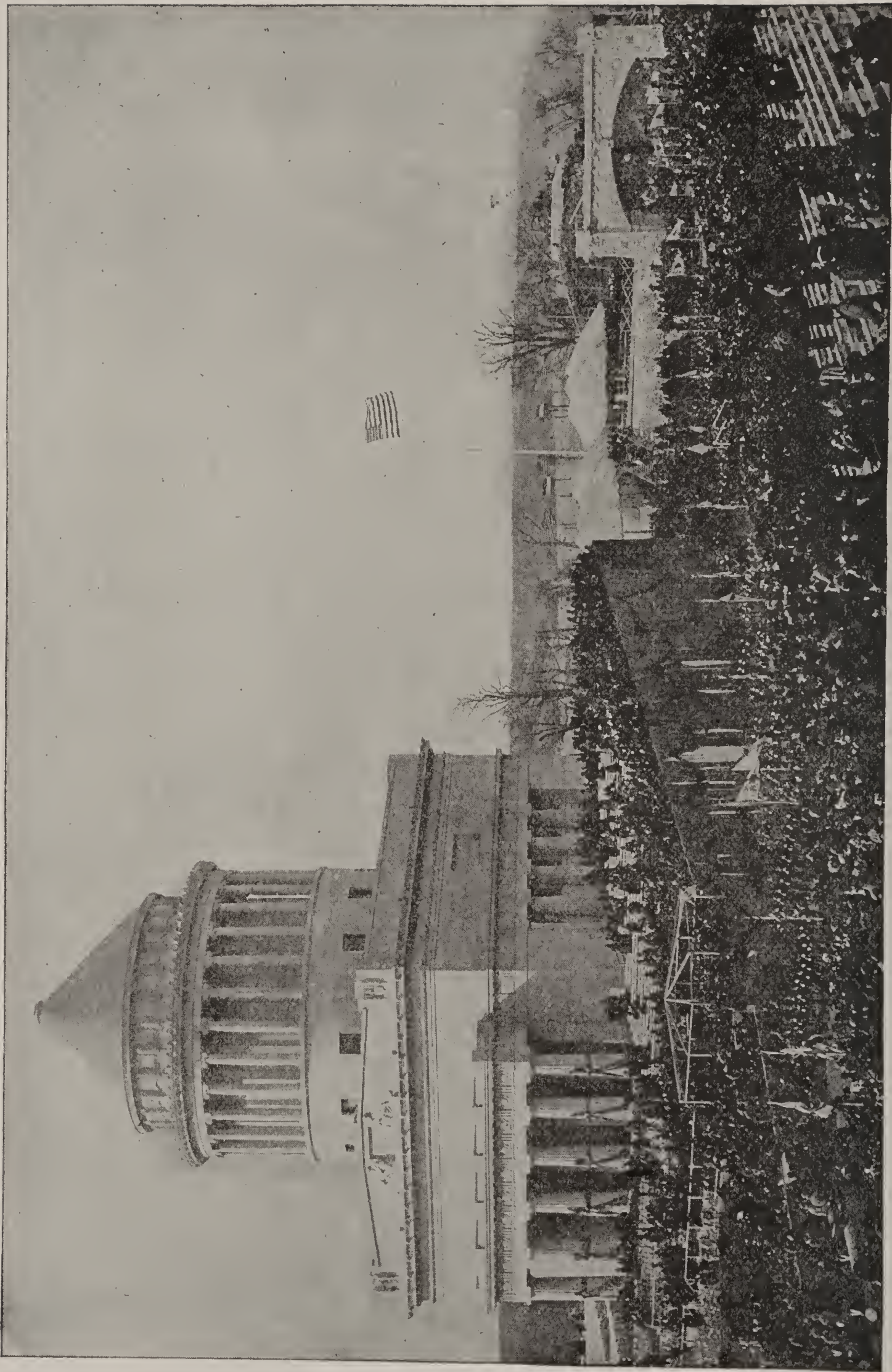
It having been decided that the body of General Grant should be buried in New York, with the right of sepulture of his widow beside the remains, she selected Riverside as the final resting-place. The task of providing a suitable tomb then confronted his friends.

By the close of September, 1886, the subscriptions to the monument fund amounted to \$82,669.69, and in February following the legislature incorporated “the Grant Monument Association.” Subscriptions then virtually stood still for several years, though considerable additions were made in 1890 and 1891. The one man, under Gen. Horace Porter, who deserves our admiring gratitude for bring-

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TO

His
Honor
and
Loyalty

River-
side his
Burial
Place



SCENE AT THE GRANT TOMB —DEDICATED APRIL 27TH. 1897

ing the subscriptions to a triumphant success was Edward F. Cragin, of Chicago. In the face of obstacles that not one in a thousand would have faced, he set to work, and by his ability, his tact, his daring, and his untiring vigor, he raised \$350,000 in a period of six weeks, that making every dollar required. Then, accepting a modest fee for his services, he returned to Chicago.

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Ground had been broken with appropriate ceremonies on the an-



GRANT'S TOMB—ENTRANCE TO VAULT

niversary of Grant's birthday, April 27, 1891, on the site of Riverside Drive and 123d Street, and one year later the corner-stone was laid by President Harrison.

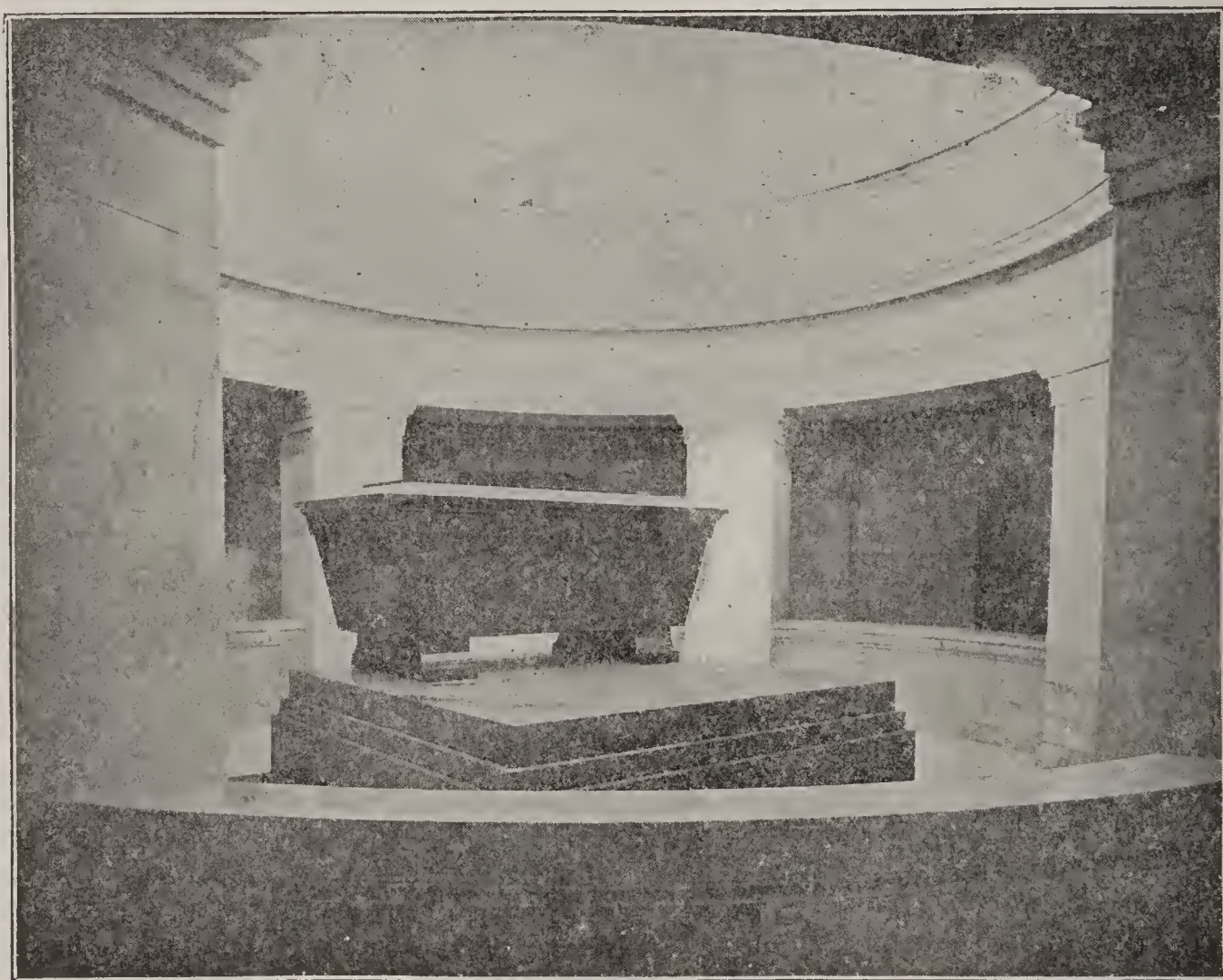
The lower section of the grand sepulchre, which was planned by John H. Duncan, measures 90 feet on a side, is square in shape, and of the Grecian-Doric order. On the south side the entrance is guarded by a portico in double lines of columns, approached by steps 70 feet in width. The structure is surmounted with a cornice and a parapet at a height of 72 feet, above which rises a circular cupola, 70 feet in diameter, terminating in a pyramidal top, 150 feet above grade, and 280 feet above the Hudson River.

Plan of
Sepul-
chre

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The architecture is severe but noble. The interior gives a cruciform plan, 76 feet in greatest length. Piers of masonry at the corners are connected by arches forming recesses. The arches reach a height of 50 feet above the floor, and over them is an open circular gallery, surmounted by a panelled dome, 105 feet above the floor. The plane and round surfaces are ornamented with sculpture in *alto-rilievo*, depicting scenes in General Grant's career. This sculpture



GRANT'S TOMB—THE SARCOPHAGUS AND VAULT

The
Sculptor

is by J. Massey Rhind. The granite used in the structure is very light in color, and the sarcophagus is made of brilliant reddish porphyry. The crypt is directly under the centre of the dome, and stairways lead to the passage surrounding the sarcophagus where in time will rest the remains of General Grant's widow.

The removal of the remains of General Grant to their last resting-place in the new and magnificent tomb on Morningside Heights overlooking the beautiful and historic Hudson was attended by one of the most imposing sights ever witnessed in the metropolis of America. The demonstration consisted of three great spectacles,—the ceremony at the tomb; the grand parade of the army, the

National Guard, and civic bodies, and the review of the navy and the merchant marine on the Hudson.

Among those gathered to witness the formal transfer were the President and Vice-President of the United States, many state governors, representatives of other nations, and distinguished American citizens. On our picturesque Hudson, now honored by the presence of the tomb, were brought together some of the mightiest ships of war ever assembled in this country, with representatives from other navies, and a vast array of merchantmen, all brilliant with marine bunting. The water-front from 129th Street to the Battery, and from Whitehall up the East River to the Bridge, was decorated with the beautiful colors of our glorious flag, and with flags of other nations, while the city throbbed for hours with the tramping of thousands of marching feet, the rumble of artillery, and the tread of horses' hoofs. There were 60,000 men in the line of the land parade, which took more than six hours to pass a given point.

The day was very disagreeable. It was unusually cold, and marked by gusts of wind, which often filled the air with blinding dust, and made the situation of the spectators extremely uncomfortable; but, unmindful of this, most of them remained in their places until the close, unwilling to lose even a portion of the remarkable demonstration.

At twenty minutes to eleven the booming of guns from the river fleet, followed by cheers, announced the coming of the Presidential party on their way to the dedication-stand. They were escorted by Squadron A, while the Grant family were under the escort of the Society of the Army of the Tennessee, New York Commandery, and Military Order of the Loyal Legion, with four comrades of George G. Meade Post, No. 1, G. A. R., Department of Pennsylvania, in carriages, all under the command of Gen. Daniel Butterfield.

The Presidential party included Secretary Sherman, Secretary Bliss, Secretary Russell A. Alger and Mrs. Alger, Attorney-General and Mrs. James McKenna, Secretary and Mrs. James Wilson, General Miles, Mrs. Miles, daughter, and aide.

The occupants of the Grant carriage were Mrs. Julia D. Grant, Mrs. Frederick D. Grant, Miss Julia Grant, Master U. S. Grant third, U. S. Grant, Jr., Mrs. U. S. Grant, Jr., Miss Marion Grant, Master Grant, Mrs. Julia Grant, Mrs. Fannie Grant, Master U. S.

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TOAn Im-
posing
PageantThe
Presi-
dential
Party

PERIOD VII

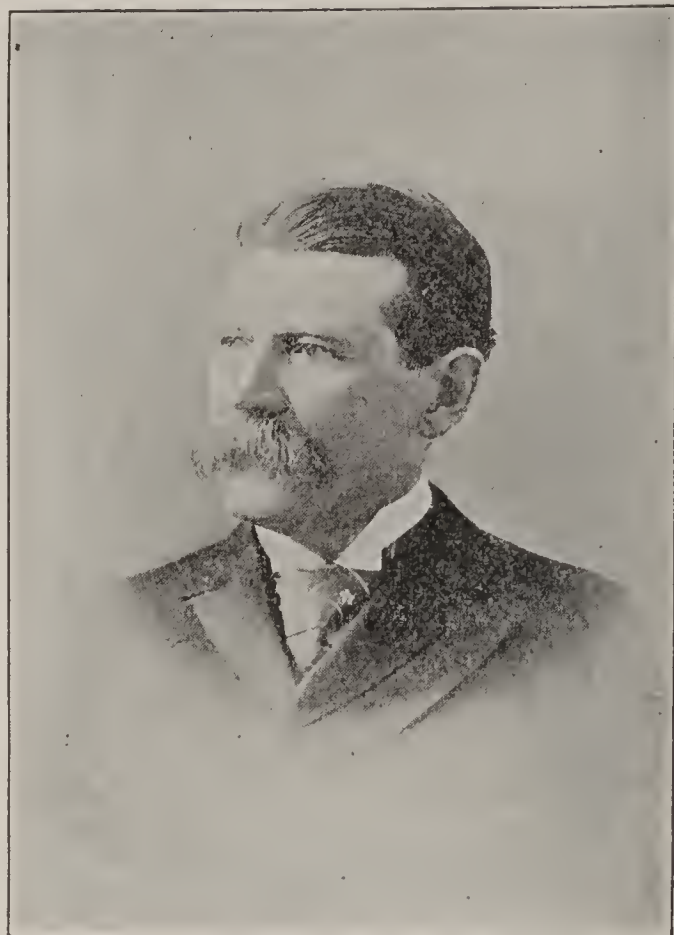
THE NEW
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1865

TO

Grant fourth, Mrs. Nellie Grant Sartoris, Algernon Sartoris, Miss Vivian Sartoris, Miss Rosemary Sartoris, Jesse Grant, Mrs. Jesse Grant, Miss Nellie Grant, Master Chapman Grant, Miss Virginia Grant Corbin, and M. J. Cramer, Mrs. M. J. Cramer, and Mrs. Jesse Cramer.

Next came the diplomatic corps, led by the British Ambassador, followed by the French and German Ambassadors, and the Mexican, Swiss, Danish, Portuguese, Turkish, and Belgian ministers, and the ministers of Ecuador. Amid

repeated applause President McKinley appeared at the door of the tomb, and, linking arms with Mayor Strong, descended the plat-



GENERAL PORTER

form to the speaker's desk. Ex-President Cleveland seated himself beside the President, and the two talked together with every appearance of the best of good fellowship.

The exercises opened with prayer by Bishop Newman, who had been an intimate friend of General Grant. President McKinley was warmly welcomed as he stepped forward to speak. His address was as follows:

"A great life, dedicated to the welfare of the nation, here finds its earthly coronation. Even if this day lacked the impressiveness of ceremony and was devoid of pageantry, it



MAYOR STRONG

would still be memorable, because it is the anniversary of the birth of the most famous and best beloved of American soldiers.

“Architecture has paid high tribute to the leaders of mankind, but never was a memorial more worthily bestowed or more gratefully accepted by a free people than the beautiful structure before which we are gathered.

“In marking the successful completion of this work we have, as

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Presi-
dent Mc-
Kinley's
Address



PRESIDENT MCKINLEY AND HIS CABINET ON BOARD THE "DOLPHIN"

witnesses and participants, representatives of all branches of our Government, the resident officials of foreign nations, the governors of States, and the sovereign people from every section of the country, who join in the august tribute to the soldier, patriot, and citizen.

“Almost twelve years have passed since the heroic vigil ended and the heroic spirit of Ulysses S. Grant took its flight. Lincoln and Stanton had preceded him, but of the mighty captains of the war Grant was the first to be called. Sherman and Sheridan survived him, but have since joined him on the other shore. The great heroes of the civil strife on land and sea, for the most part, are now

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dead. Thomas and Hancock, Logan and MacPherson, Farragut, Du Pont, and Porter, and a host of others have passed forever from human sight. Those remaining grow dearer to us, and from them and the memory of those who have departed, generations yet unborn will draw their inspiration and gather strength for patriotic purpose.

“A great life never dies; great deeds are imperishable; great



BISHOP NEWMAN OPENING THE PROCEEDINGS WITH PRAYER

names immortal. General Grant's services and character will continue undiminished in influence and advance in the estimation of mankind so long as liberty remains the corner-stone of free government and integrity of life the guarantee of good citizenship.

Worthy
of the
World's
Homage

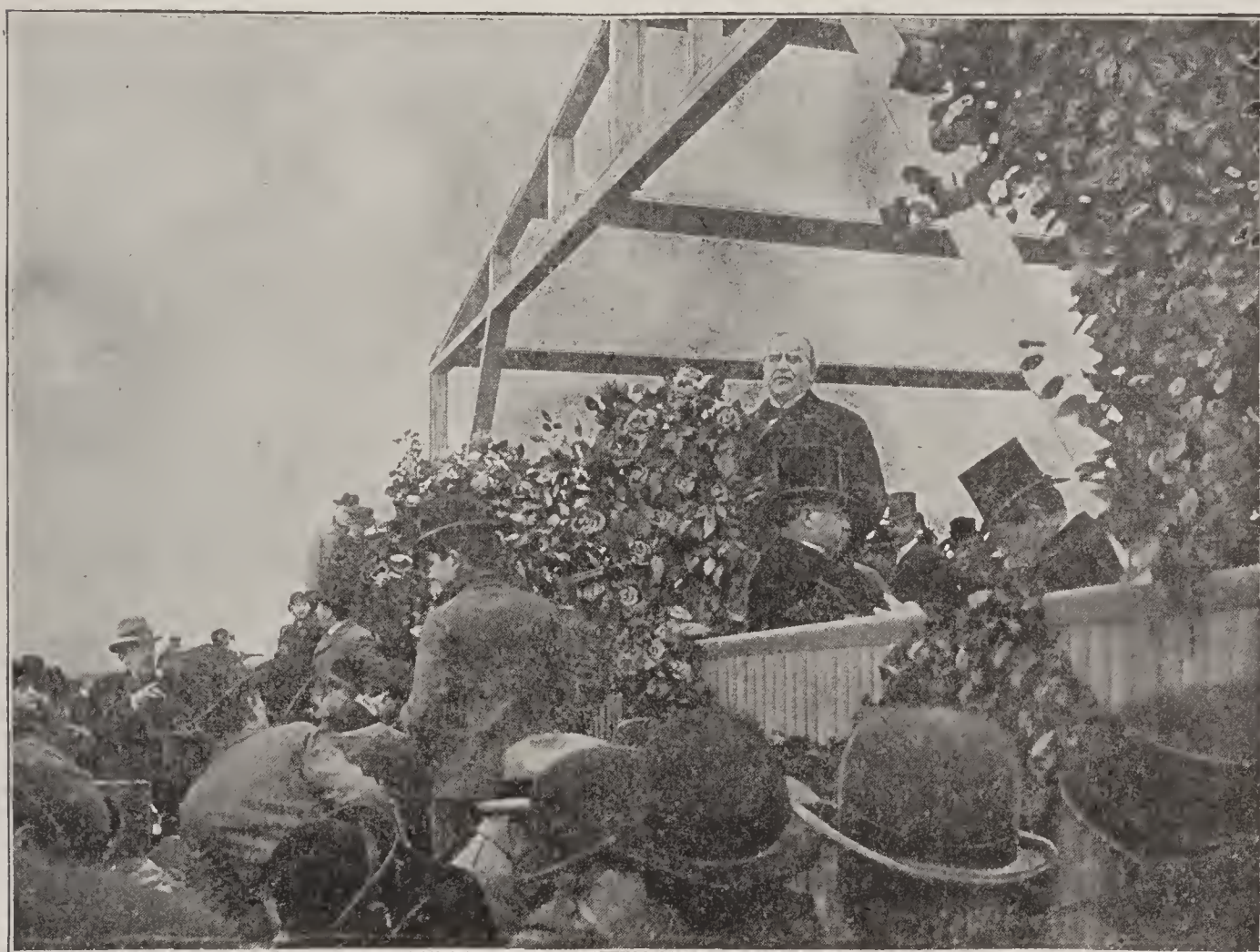
“Faithful and fearless as a volunteer soldier, intrepid and invincible as Commander-in-Chief of the Armies of the Union, calm and confident as President of a reunited and strengthened nation, which his genius had been instrumental in saving, he has our homage, and that of the world. We love him all the more for his home life and homely virtues. His individuality, his bearing and speech, his sim-

ple ways, had a flavor of rare and unique distinction, and his Americanism was so true and uncompromising that his name will stand for all time as the embodiment of liberty, loyalty, and national unity.

“Victorious in the work which, under Divine Providence, he was called upon to do; clothed with almost limitless power, he was yet one of the people—patient, patriotic, and just. Success did not disturb the even balance of his mind, while fame was powerless to

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PRESIDENT MCKINLEY DELIVERING HIS EULOGY ON GENERAL GRANT

swerve him from the path of duty. Great as he was in war, he loved peace, and told the world that honorable arbitration of differences was the best hope of civilization.

“With Washington and Lincoln, Grant had an exalted place in the history and the affections of the people. To-day his memory is held in equal esteem by those whom he led to victory and by those who accepted his generous terms of peace. The veteran leaders of the Blue and Gray here meet not only to honor the name of Grant, but to testify to the living reality of a fraternal national spirit which has triumphed over the differences of the past and transcends the limitations of sectional lines. Its completion—which we pray God to speed—will be the nation's greatest glory.

Honored
by the
Blue and
Gray

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“It is right, then, that General Grant should have a memorial commensurate with his greatness, and that his last resting-place should be the city of his choice, to which he was so attached in life and of whose ties he was not forgetful even in death. Fitting, too, is it that the great soldier should sleep beside the noble river on



MAYOR STRONG DELIVERING HIS ADDRESS

whose banks he first learned the art of war, and of which he became master and leader without a rival.

“But let us not forget the glorious distinction with which the metropolis among the fair sisterhood of American cities has honored his life and memory. With all that riches and sculpture can do to render the edifice worthy of the man, upon a site unsurpassed for magnificence, has this monument been reared by New York as a

perpetual record of his illustrious deeds, in the certainty that, as time passes, around it will assemble, with gratitude and reverence and veneration, men of all climes, races, and nationalities.

“New York holds in its keeping the precious dust of the silent soldier, but his achievements—what he and his brave comrades wrought for mankind—are in the keeping of seventy millions of American citizens, who will guard the sacred heritage forever and forevermore.”

Mayor Strong, who presided, introduced Gen. Horace Porter, the president of the Grant Monument Association, who spoke as follows:

“It is all like a dream. One can scarcely realize the lapse of time and the memorable events which have occurred since our hero President was first proclaimed one of the great of earth. The dial hands upon the celestial clock record the flight of more than a generation since the legions of America’s manhood poured down from the hilltops, surged up from the valleys, knelt upon their native soil to swear eternal allegiance to the Union, and went forth to seal the oath with their blood in marching under the victorious banners of Ulysses S. Grant. To-day countless numbers of his contemporaries, their children, and their children’s children gather about his tomb to give permanent sepulture to his ashes and to recall the record of his imperishable deeds.

“It is peculiarly fitting that this memorial should be dedicated in the presence of the distinguished soldier who marched in the victorious columns of his illustrious chief, and who now so worthily occupies the chair of state in which he sat. There is a source of extreme gratification and a profound significance in the fact that there are in attendance here not only the soldiers who fought under the renowned defender of the Union cause, but the leaders of armies who fought against him, all uniting in testifying to the esteem and respect which he commanded from friend and foe alike.

“This grateful duty which we discharge this day is not unmixed with sadness, for the occasion brings vividly to mind the fatal day on which his generous heart ceased to beat, and recalls the grief which fell upon the American people with a sense of pain which was akin to the sorrow of a personal bereavement; and yet it is not an occasion for tears—not a time to chant requiems or display the sable draperies of public mourning.

“He who lies within the portals of yonder tomb is not a dead

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TO
—

General
Porter's
Address

Grief be-
cause of
Grant's
Death



C. N. BLISS C. M. DEPEW EX-PRES. CLEVELAND GOV. BLACK SEC. SHERMAN LYMAN GAGE R. A. ALGER

DISTINGUISHED VISITORS AT THE GRANT CEREMONIES

memory; he is a living reality. He has been consigned to the chamber of death, but not to the realms of forgetfulness. Our grief is calmed by the recollection of the blessings his life conferred and the fame he has left to the custody of his fellow-citizens.

"We consecrate this day a tribute to the memory of departed worth. The story of his life is the history of the most eventful epoch in his country's annals. Upon an occasion such as this it would seem more fitting to stand silent by the tomb and let history alone speak, but it has been deemed proper that living witnesses to his



GENERAL BUTTERFIELD



GENERAL DODGE

virtues should pay the grateful tribute of their testimony. The allotment of time permits only a brief allusion to the achievements of his marvellous career.

"Ulysses S. Grant sprang from the loins of the American people and derived his patent of nobility direct from God. He possessed an abiding confidence in the honesty and intelligence of his fellow countrymen, and always retained his deep hold upon their affections. Even when clothed with the robes of the master he forgot not that he was still the servant of the people. In every great crisis he was content to leave the efforts to his countrymen

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TO

A Ser-
vant of
the
People

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TOAlways
Facing
the
FrontA Com-
mander
of Him-
self

and the results to God. As a commander of men in the field he manifested the highest characteristics of the soldier, as evinced in every battle in which he was engaged, from Palo Alto to Appomattox. He was bold in conception, fixed in purpose, and vigorous in execution. He never allowed himself to be thrown on the defensive, but always aimed to take the initiative in battle. He made armies and not cities the objective points of his campaigns. Obstacles which would have deterred another seemed only to inspire him with greater confidence, and his soldiers soon learned to reflect much of his determination.

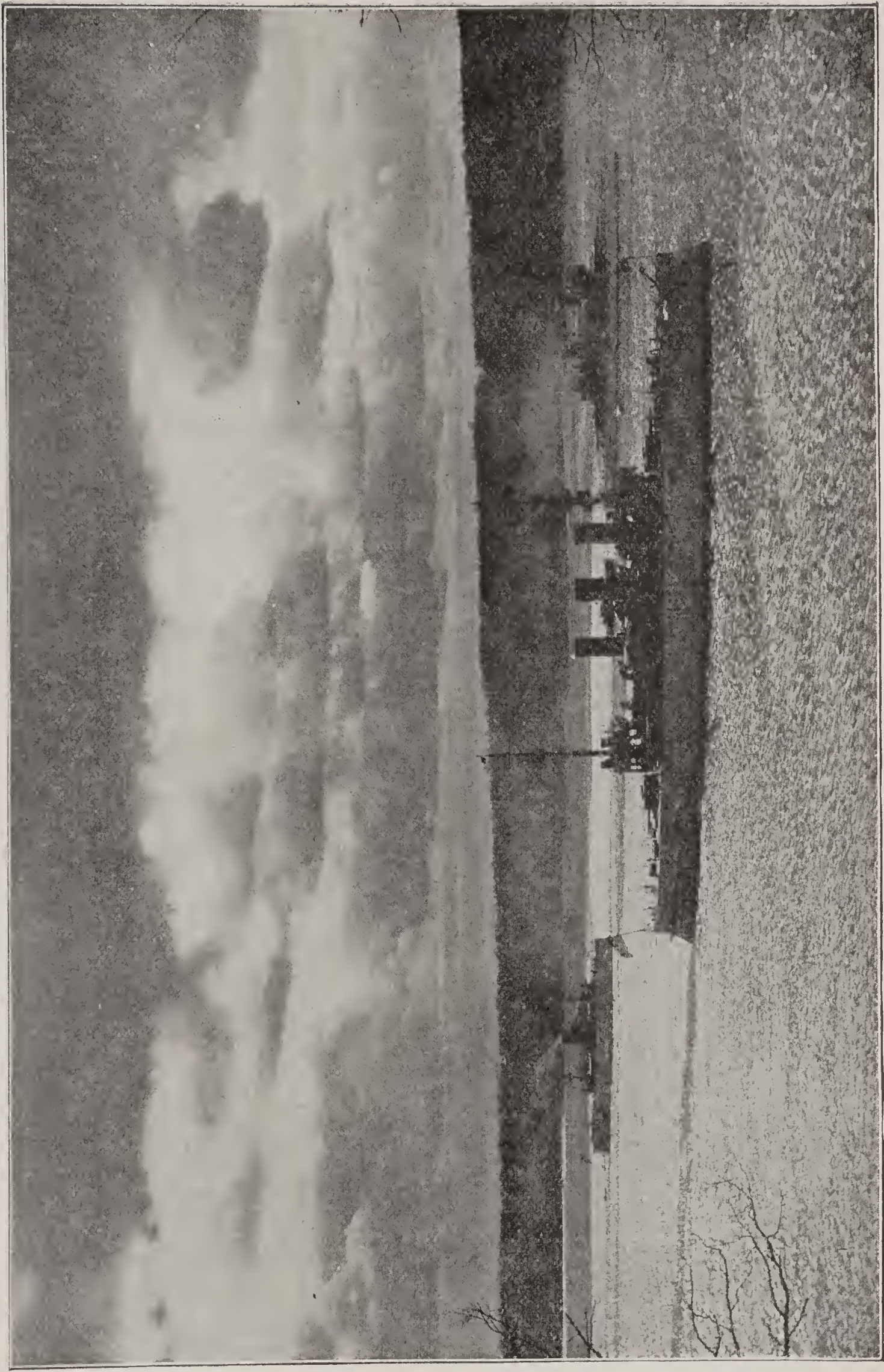
“His motto was, ‘When in doubt, move to the front.’ His sword always pointed the way to an advance; its hilt was never presented to an enemy. He once wrote in a letter to his father, ‘I never expect to have an army whipped, unless it is badly whipped and can’t help it.’ He enjoyed a physical constitution which enabled him to endure every form of fatigue and privation incident to military service in the field. His unassuming manner, purity of character, and absolute loyalty inspired loyalty in others, confidence in his methods, and gained him the devotion of the humblest of his subordinates.

“He exhibited a rapidity of thought and action on the field which enabled him to move with a promptness rarely ever equalled, and which never failed to astonish, and often to baffle, the best efforts of a less vigorous opponent.

“A study of his martial deeds inspires us with the grandeur of events and the majesty of achievement. He did not fight for glory, but for national existence and the equality and rights of men. His sole ambition was his country’s prosperity. His victories failed to elate him. In the despatches which reported his triumphs there was no word of arrogance, no exaggeration, no aim at dramatic effect. With all his self-reliance he was never betrayed into immodesty of expression.

“He never underrated himself in a battle, he never overrated himself in a report. He could not only command armies, he could command himself. Inexorable as he was in battle, war never hardened his heart or weakened the strength of his natural affections. He retained a singularly sensitive nature, a rare tenderness of feeling; shrank from the sight of blood, and was painfully alive to every form of human suffering.

“While his career as a soldier eclipsed by its brilliancy his



NAVAL PARADE IN THE HUDSON RIVER—U. S. S. "NEW YORK," "MAINE," AND "TEXAS"

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achievements as a statesman, yet when we sum up the events of the eight years during which he was President of the Republic, their magnitude and importance challenge comparison with those of any other Chief Magistrate since the inauguration of the Government. When he took the helm of State the country was in a condition of ferment and disorganization, which is always consequent upon a long-continued civil war.

The
Southern
Problem

“The Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution had not yet been ratified by the States. In the South secret societies and armed bands of lawless men were creating terror and defeating the ends of justice. The prosperity of the country was still lagging, the public debt was oppressive, and inflationists and repudiators were weakening the national credit. Our merchant marine had dwindled to a mere shadow of its former self; political rancor had envenomed whole sections of the country, Indian wars were brewing, unsettled disputes with foreign powers threatened the national peace, and the new Chief Magistrate was confronted with problems so formidable that they were enough to appall the stoutest heart and discourage the most hopeful mind.

“In the letter of acceptance of his nomination for the Presidency he uttered one of the sublimest sentences ever penned by statesman’s hand, ‘Let us have peace.’ Of all the many aphorisms which emanated from him, this has been deemed the most fitting to engrave indelibly over the portals of his tomb. It is typical of his nature and emblematic of the eternal peace enjoyed by his soul.

His
Work
for the
Indians

“He began his administration vigorously and firmly, but he declared that he would have ‘no policy of his own to enforce against the will of the people.’ In his first inaugural address he urged measures to strengthen the public credit and give to the world an unquestionable pledge of financial honesty. His early experience among the Indians while he was serving on the frontier had eminently fitted him for inaugurating practical methods for improving their condition.

“He took up earnestly the work of civilizing and Christianizing them, placing them on reservations, treating them as wards of the nation, and fitting them for ultimate citizenship, and thus avoided wars and saved vast sums of money. Under his administration the Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution was ratified and all the States were readmitted to the Union. In 1870 he recommended the

refunding of the national debt, and an act was passed soon after providing for bonds at four per cent., a much reduced rate of interest, and they were successfully negotiated.

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“For the first time in our history he brought about a genuine reform in our civil service, and in the face of the most persistent opposition organized the first civil service board.

“At the breaking out of hostilities, while many eminent and experienced public men were declaring that the war would last but a few months, and orators were waving their white handkerchiefs and proclaiming that they were large enough to wipe up all the blood which would be shed in the coming struggle, Grant announced his belief that the war would continue for years, and that preparations should be made commensurate with its formidable proportions.

His true
Concep-
tion of
the War

“He wrote a letter from the field to E. B. Washburne, in which he said: ‘It became patent to my mind early in the rebellion that the North and South could never live at peace with each other except as one nation, and that without slavery. As anxious as I am to see peace established, I would not, therefore, be willing to see any settlement until this question is forever settled.’

“Before any battles had been fought he said to a staff officer: ‘I believe that Virginia will be the principal field of military operations in this rebellion, that the cavalry will play an important part in that section of the country, and that the decisive battle in the war will occur there.’ This prediction was verified in every particular. When it was represented that Kentucky would remain neutral, Grant declared that no State could remain neutral in a national war of such magnitude, and that it would be taken possession of by the troops of one side or the other, and he, without awaiting orders, promptly threw his command into Kentucky to gain the vantage-ground and hold that important territory.

“In his proclamation issued at the time he spoke with the true bluntness of the soldier, saying: ‘I have nothing to do with opinions, and shall deal only with armed rebellion and its aiders and abettors.’

“When the enemy came out of Fort Donelson and attacked him, no one could divine the object of the movement. He promptly ordered the haversacks of the dead to be examined, and, finding they were well filled, said: ‘Men defending a fort don’t carry three days’ rations when making a charge unless they are trying to get

A Patri-
otic
Soldier

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TO
—His
Mag-
nanimity

away,' and, after driving them back, sent word: 'I propose to move immediately upon your works.'

"As early as the capture of Vicksburg he expressed entire confidence in the belief that it was not a military necessity to deal harshly with the enemy, and that all possible leniency should be shown to the Southern people, as they would soon again become our fellow-countrymen. He therefore treated the prisoners with every consideration, paroled the officers and men, and issued this characteristic order: 'The garrison will march out to-morrow. Instruct your commands to be quiet and orderly as the prisoners pass by, and make no offensive remarks.'

"He early foresaw that to overcome the rebellion it was not only necessary to maintain large armies in the field, but to have a vigorous support of the war in the Northern States. Over a million of loyal voters were absent at the front, and thus deprived of the right of suffrage, and prevented from offsetting by their votes the votes of the disloyal element in the North, and he wrote a remarkable letter to the Secretary of War, setting forth a plan in great detail, providing a method which would enable the soldiers to vote in the field.

"The plan, accompanied as it was by such checks and safeguards that the votes would be entirely free and untrammelled, so strongly commended itself to the authorities that it was carried out, and proved a complete success. At Appomattox it was a nice question of judgment as to what terms to accord to the opposing army. Civil warfare is always the most bitter.

"The worst feelings had been engendered; the war had claimed as a sacrifice the best blood of the country; the land was filled with mourning; the excitement was at fever heat, and there was in many quarters a vindictiveness which prompted the harshest treatment permissible in civilized warfare.

His
Chivalry

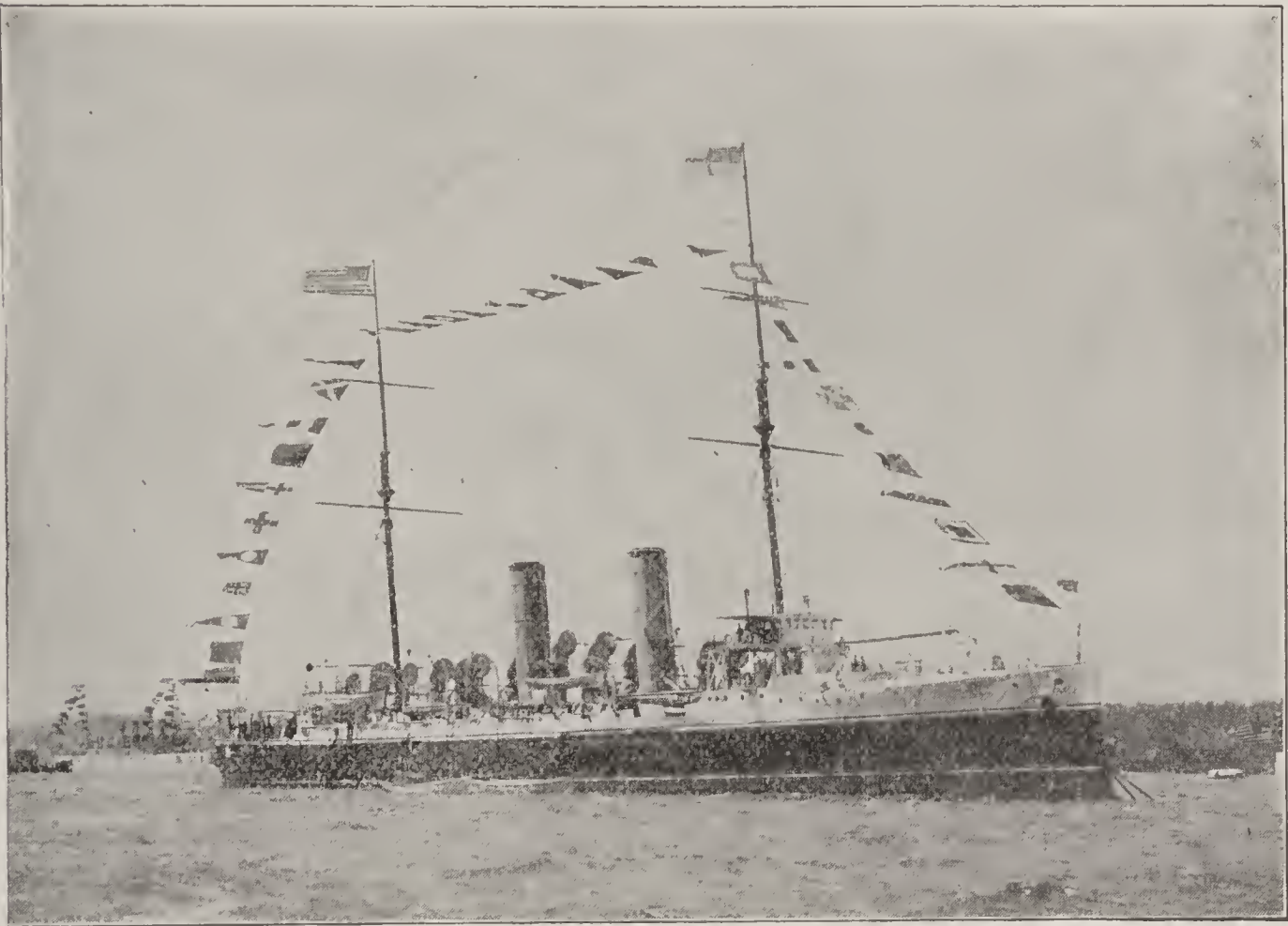
"General Grant, without consulting higher authority and without hesitation, took the responsibility of according lenient treatment and avoiding unnecessary offence. He did not demand Lee's sword, and allowed the men to take their horses home 'to work their little farms,' and when the Union batteries began to fire triumphal salutes he sent out an order, saying: 'The war is over, the rebels are our countrymen again, and the best way to rejoice after the victory will be to abstain from all demonstrations in the field.'

"With his uncommon range of mental vision, he foresaw that the

granting of these conditions would induce other armies throughout the South to accept the same terms, and thus prevent a guerilla warfare from being carried on for an indefinite period in the interior, and would induce such influential men as Lee and other Confederate army commanders to use their influence in aiding in the rehabilitation of the Southern States.

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“He was quicker than any one else to see that reconstruction



THE NAVAL PARADE—"THE TALBOT," WAR-SHIP (ENGLISH NAVY)

would be a task almost as formidable as the suppression of armed rebellion. He refrained from entering the captured capital, did not even step within the enemy's lines, and shrank from every act which might make him appear to pose as a conqueror.

“When President Johnson, soon after the war, inaugurated his campaign for making treason odious, and when indictments were brought in the Federal courts against Lee and other ex-Confederate officers, Grant foresaw that if such a course were pursued it would be interpreted as a gross breach of faith and a violation of the terms given in the paroles; that it would lead to exciting trials, which would last for years, be a constant source of irritation, and probably compel the Government to hold the Southern States for a long time

His High
Honor

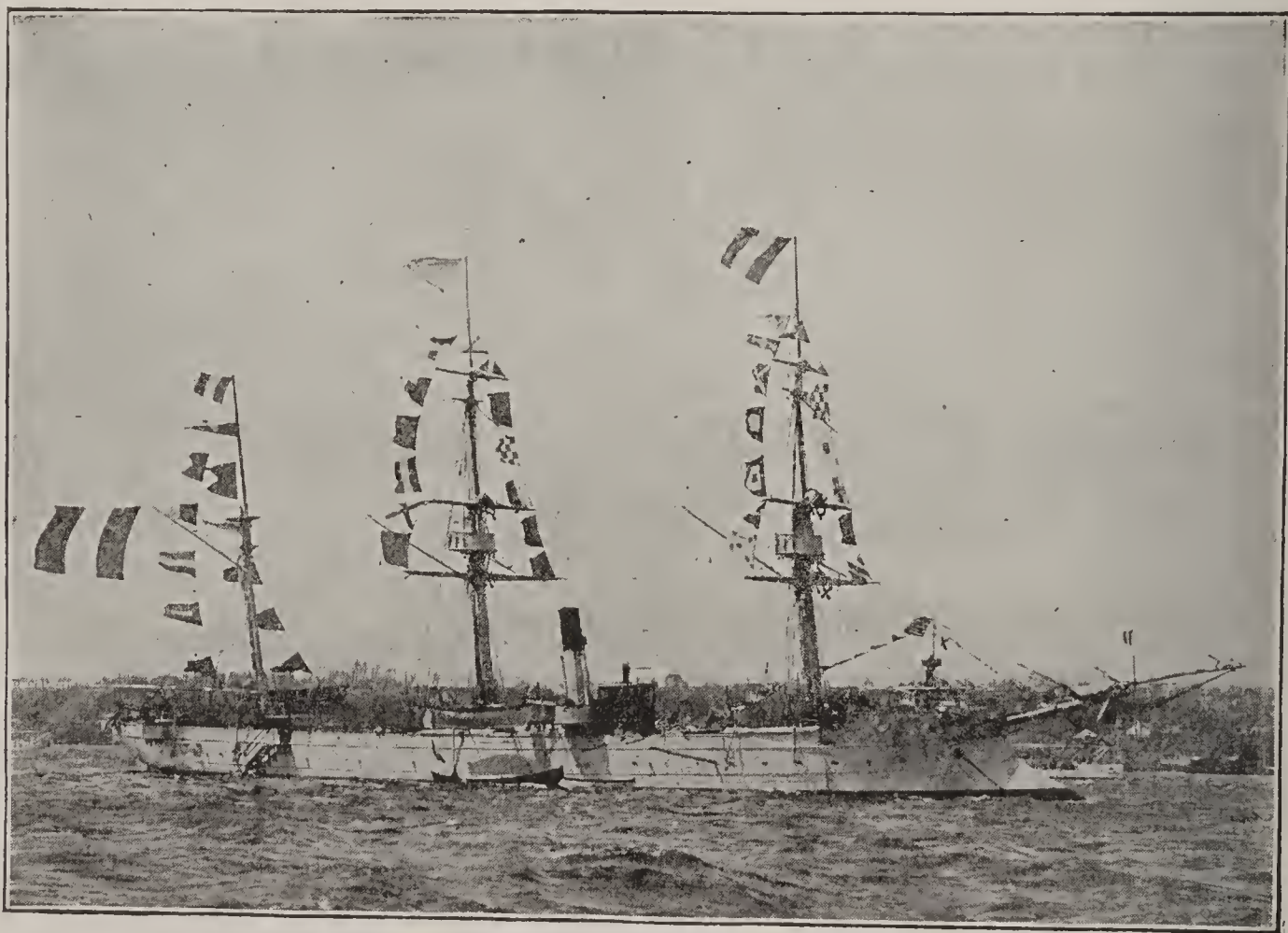
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as conquered territories, while he believed that every effort should be made to bring them back into the Federal Union.

“His judgment was so clear upon this subject that he declared his intention to resign his commission in the army if his prisoners were not protected. The result was the quashing of the indictments and the creation of a disposition on the part of the South to accept the results of the war.

“As President he showed in his first inaugural that he foresaw



THE NAVAL PARADE—"THE FULTON," CORVETTE (FRENCH NAVY)

the financial errors which were likely some day to be advocated when he wrote: 'To protect the national honor every dollar of Government indebtedness should be paid in gold, unless otherwise expressly stipulated in the contract. . . . Let it be understood that no repudiator of one farthing of our public debt will be trusted in public life.'

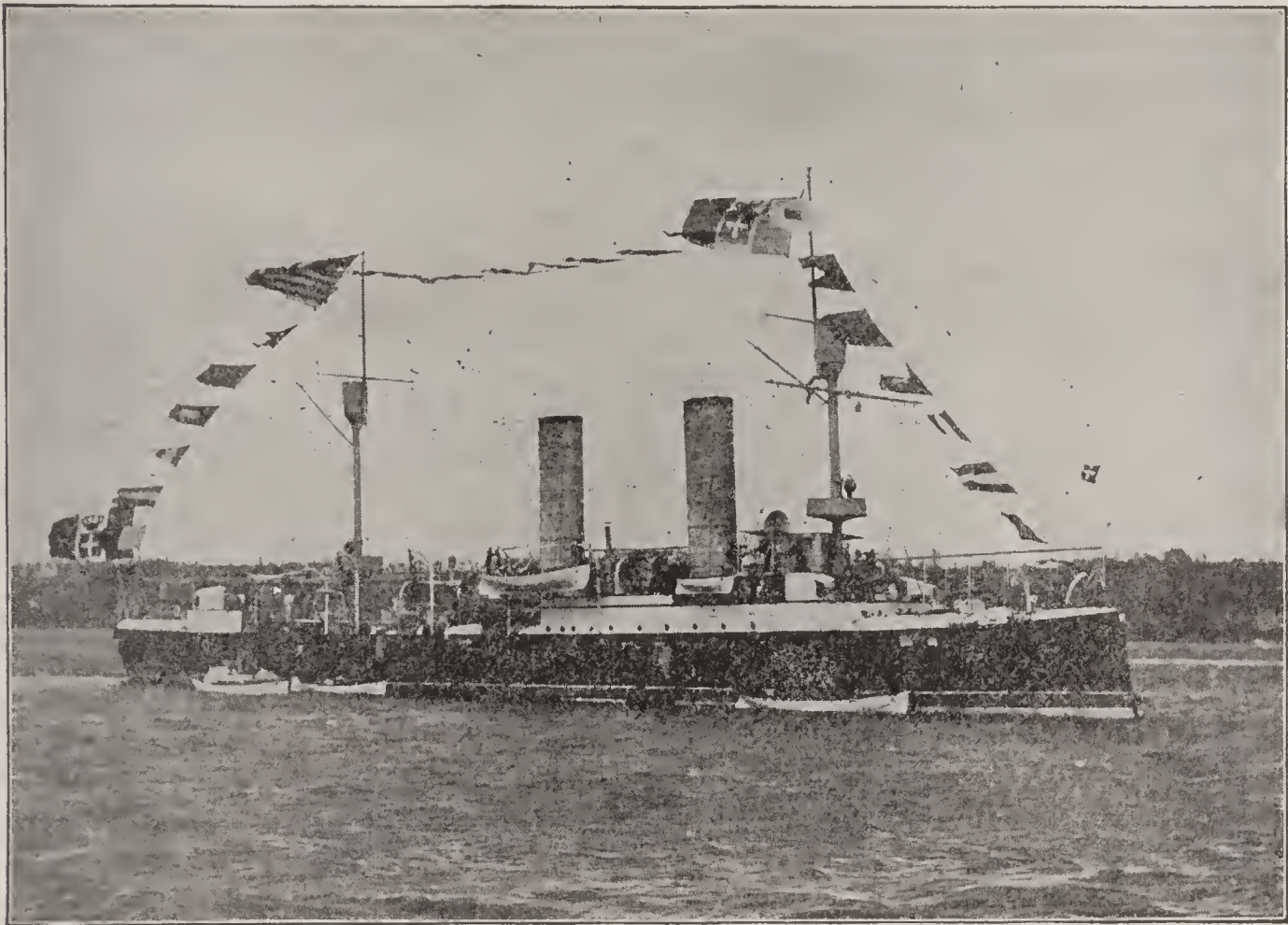
The real
Tribunal
of the
Future

“Twenty years ago he said: 'At some future day the nations of the earth will agree upon some sort of congress which shall take cognizance of international questions of difficulty, and whose decisions will be as binding as the decision of the Supreme Court is upon us.' The spirit of the age seems to be gradually tending towards a fulfilment of that prediction.

“Early in his first Presidential term he took vigorous measures to have competent surveys made for an inter-oceanic canal, believing that it was essential in connecting our extensive Atlantic and Pacific coasts by a shorter water route. His foresight told him that it was impossible to defend such a canal in case of war unless we had a commodious naval station in the Gulf of Mexico.

“He realized the fact that other nations held possession of fortified islands from Bermuda to the West Indies; he believed that we

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THE NAVAL PARADE—"THE DOGALI," WAR-SHIP (ITALIAN NAVY)

would some day build a competent navy, and that we would be greatly embarrassed by not having even a coaling-station on any of the islands in the Gulf. He therefore negotiated a treaty for securing possession of San Domingo, with its magnificent Bay of Samana, which would afford a harbor for the largest navy afloat.

“The treaty gave us, virtually without cost, an island occupying a commanding position, rich in many products necessary to this country, and with so sparse a population that there were only seven inhabitants to the square mile. The Senate defeated the treaty by depriving it of the necessary two-thirds vote upon the question of its ratification.

The San
Domingo
Treaty

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“Now, twenty-seven years thereafter, when we have an ironclad navy and have begun an inter-oceanic canal, have recently been threatened with grave complications in Cuba, Venezuela, and elsewhere, there are few patriotic American citizens who do not regret that at that important crisis the President’s policy did not prevail.

“In defining the qualities of public men, it has been said that the politician looks forward to his next election, the statesman looks for-



THE NAVAL PARADE—"INFANTA ISABELLA," WAR-SHIP (SPANISH NAVY)

ward to the next generation. Measured by this definition, Grant manifested the highest order of statesmanship.

A Victim
of De-
traction

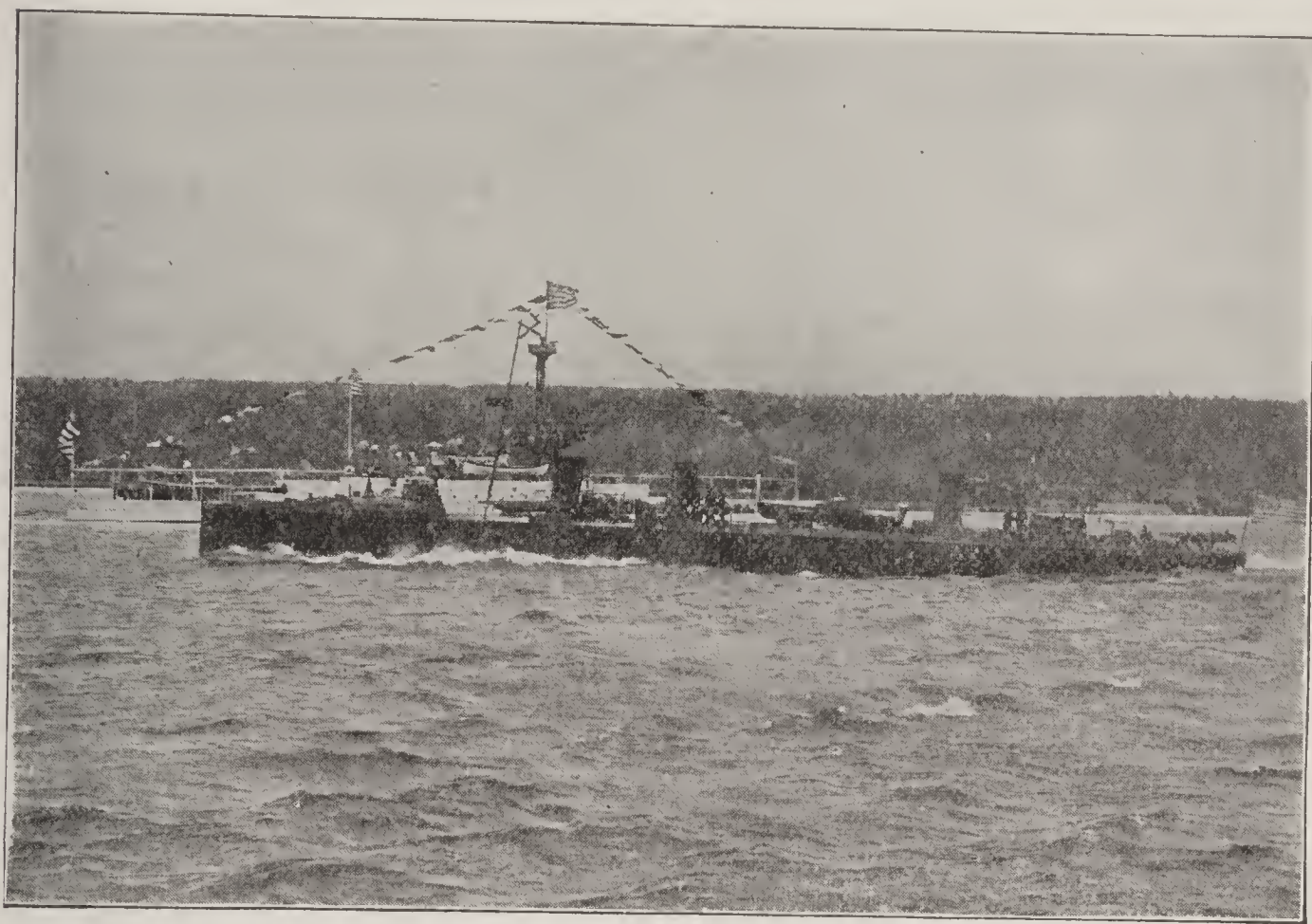
“He was naturally of a hopeful disposition and cheerful mind, and entered heartily into social gayeties, but there were periods in his life when his heartstrings were attuned to strains of sadness. He underwent physical hardships and mental tortures which would have crushed a character less heroic. Like other conspicuous leaders, it was his fate to suffer the bitter experience of detraction, misrepresentation, and betrayal.

“It may be said of him, as was said of a predecessor: ‘There were times when twenty men applied for the same office, and after he had reached a selection he found that he had made nineteen

enemies and one ingrate.' He was assailed more bitterly than any one who ever sat in the chair of State, save Washington. He was brought to realize that 'reproach is a concomitant to greatness, as satire and invective were an essential part of a Roman triumph,' and to learn that in public life 'all honors wound, the last one kills.'

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"Envy and malice made him at times the target for their poi-



THE NAVAL PARADE—THE TORPEDO BOAT "PORTER," U. S. N.

soned shafts, but their fragments fell at his feet as shattered as the reputations of those who aimed them, and even the wrath of his enemies may now be counted in his praise.

"General Grant was a man who seemed to be created especially to meet great emergencies. It was the very magnitude of the task which called forth the powers that mastered it. Whether leading an attack in Mexico, dictating the terms of surrender to countless thousands in the War of the Rebellion, suddenly assuming a vast responsibility in great crises both in peace and in war, writing state papers as President which were to have a lasting bearing upon the policy of the Government, travelling through older lands and mingling with the descendants of a line of kings who rose and stood uncovered in his presence—he was always equal to the occasion, and

A man
for Great
Emer-
gencies

PERIOD VII acquitted himself with a success that challenges the admiration of the world.

THE NEW
UNITED
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TO

“In trivial matters he was an ordinary man; in momentous affairs he towered as a giant. As Johnson said of Milton, ‘He could hew a Colossus from the rocks; he could not carve faces on cherry-stones.’

“Even his valor on the field of carnage was not superior to the heroism he displayed when in his fatal illness he confronted the



THE NAVAL PARADE—UNITED STATES AND FOREIGN WAR-SHIPS

His
Patience

only enemy to whom he ever surrendered. His old will power reasserted itself in his determination to complete his memoirs. During whole months of physical torture he with one hand held death at arm's length while with the other he penned the most brilliant chapter in American history.

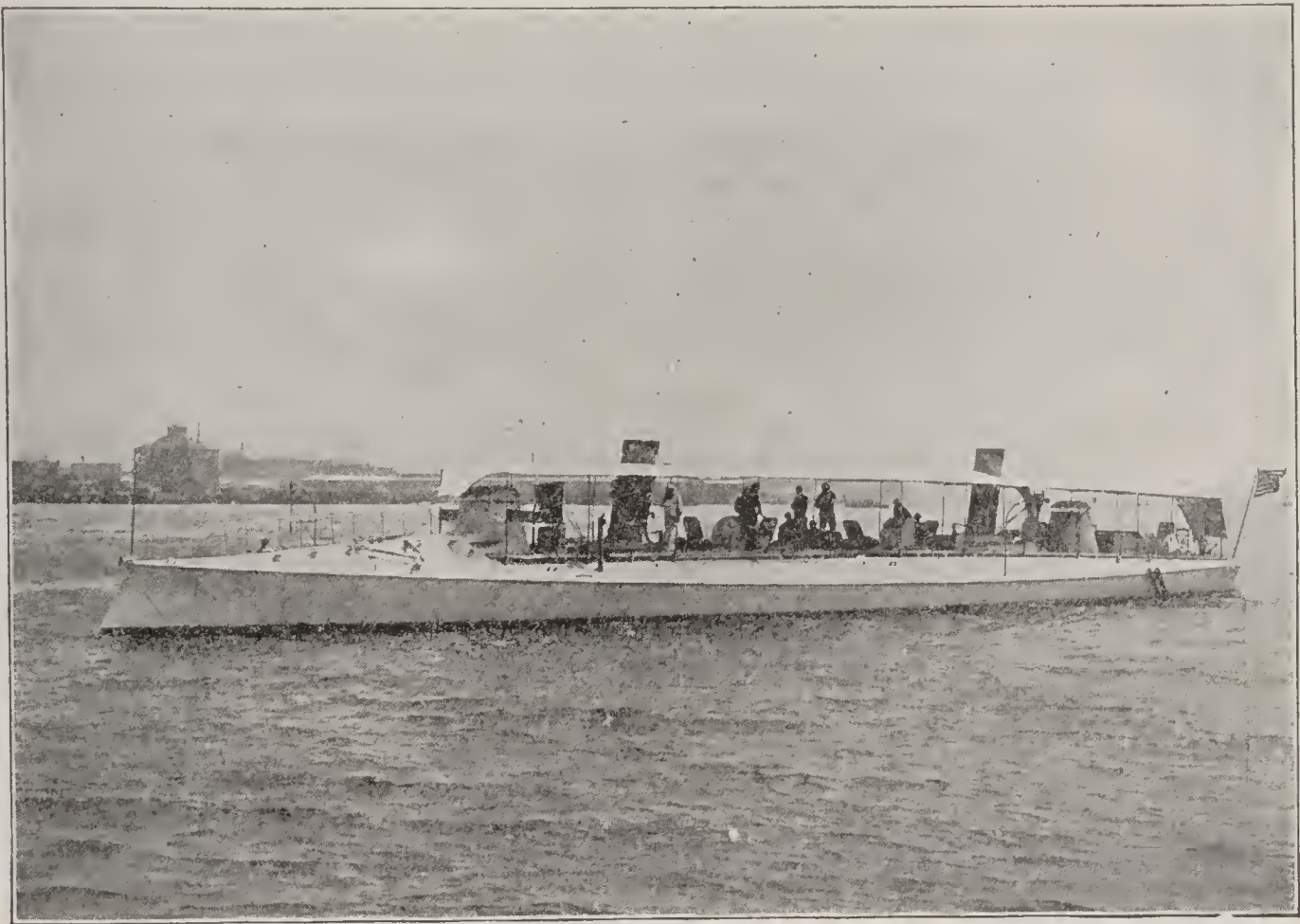
“It is twelve years since he left the living here to join the other living, commonly called the dead, and the laurel on his brow was intertwined with the cypress. His last words, uttered at the close of his agonizing illness, were eminently characteristic of his patience and his consideration for others: ‘I hope no one will be distressed on my account.’

“Now that more than a decade has passed since he stood among

us, we can form a better estimate of his character than when he was close by. Time has shed a clearer light upon his acts; he has reached a higher altitude; distance has brought him into the proper focus, and the picture upon which we now look appears in its true proportions. We see his traits moulded into perfect symmetry and blended into majestic harmony.

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TO
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“A tree can best be measured when it is down.
“He reached the highest pinnacle of human distinction. Men



THE NAVAL PARADE—TORPEDO BOAT “CUSHING,” U. S. N.

have dwelt upon his achievements till they know them all by heart. The record of his deeds rises to the sublimity of an epic. The story of his life is worthy the contemplation of his greatness. He did his duty and trusted to history for his meed of praise.

“The more history discusses him the more brilliant becomes the lustre of his name. He was a natural leader; he was born to command. He was one of the men who ‘mark the hours while others only sound them.’ No one can rob him of a single laurel; no one can lessen the measure of his renown. He honored the age in which he lived, and future generations will be illumined by the brightness of his fame.

His
Fame
Secure

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TO
—

An Ideal
Tomb

“His countrymen have paid him a tribute of grateful hearts; they have reared in monumental rock a sepulchre for his ashes, a temple to his fame. The fact that it has been built by the voluntary contributions of the people will give our citizens an individual interest in preserving it, in honoring it. It will stand throughout the ages upon this conspicuous promontory, this ideal site. It will overlook the metropolis of the Republic which his efforts saved from dismemberment; it will be reflected in the noble waters of the Hudson, upon which pass the argosies of commerce, so largely multiplied by the peace secured by his heroic deeds.

“They owed a sacred duty which they could not fail to perform. They have reared his monument to a majestic height; but if it towered above the eagle’s flight it would not reach as high as the summit of his fame. Its flawless granite is typical of the spotless character of his reputation. Its delicate lines and massive proportions will remind us of the childlike simplicity which was mingled with the majestic grandeur of his nature.

“The hallowed memories clustering about it will recall the heroic age of the Republic. Its mute eloquence would plead for equal sacrifice should war ever again threaten the nation’s life. In this tomb, which generosity has created and which his services have sanctified, his ashes will henceforth rest, but his true sepulchre will be the hearts of his countrymen.

Gen.
Porter’s
Assis-
tants

“I take great pleasure in testifying to the wise counsel, material assistance, and hearty cooperation received at all times from the trustees, officers, and members of the committees during the entire period of my official association with this enterprise. The Executive Committee, consisting, besides the officers, of Mr. Henry W. Cannon, Ex-Gov. A. B. Cornell, the Hon. C. N. Bliss, Gen. C. H. T. Collis, Mr. Alexander E. Orr, Mr. Cornelius O’Reilly, Col. S. V. R. Cruger, Gen. Wager Swayne, and Col. Elliott F. Shepard, now deceased, have by their indefatigable and unselfish labors in the work conducted by the association during the past five years commended themselves to the grateful thanks of this community and the nation at large.

“The Vice-Presidents, Mr. Elihu Root and Gen. Grenville M. Dodge, have been conspicuous in giving to the association the benefit of their excellent judgment, their constant endeavors, and professional labors.



Mrs. Garfield
Mrs. Harrison
Mrs. Grant

Mrs. McKinley
Mrs. Cleveland

Mrs. McElroy
Mrs. Hayes
Miss Cleveland

LADIES OF THE WHITE HOUSE—1869 TO 1901

“The Secretary, the late Mr. James C. Reed, gave his time and services for five years to the vast bureau work of the position, conducted the extensive correspondence, kept the elaborate accounts made necessary by the manifold details of the office, and was at all times conspicuously active in the labors which were entailed upon him. He exhibited a devotion to the interests of the association which commanded the respect of and endeared him to all his associates. It is most pathetic that he should have been placed in his grave the day before the dedication of the tomb, in the erection of which he bore such an honorable part. All patriotic hearts mourn his loss, and their sympathies go forth to his bereaved family.

PERIOD VII
THE NEW
UNITED
STATES
1865
TO

Secretary
Reed

“Mr. Frederick D. Tappen has been for five years the Treasurer of the association. His high character and the esteem in which he is held in the community have everywhere inspired respect and confidence. He has labored unceasingly in the arduous duties of his office, and the enterprise is deeply indebted to him for his untiring labors in receipting for the numberless small sums subscribed and keeping the financial accounts, and for the constant and watchful care he has exercised over the fund of which he has been the official custodian.

“It would be difficult to accord a commensurate degree of credit to Mr. Cornelius O'Reilly, the efficient Chairman of the Building Committee. He has been identified with the enterprise from its very start. His practical experience in building and rare knowledge of the best mechanical methods, his willingness to give a very great portion of his time to supervising the manifold detail of construction, have stamped him as one of our most public-spirited citizens, and should command for him grateful recognition by all our people.

“During the entire work of construction all the executive officers of the association have cheerfully given their time and services without compensation to the arduous duties which they had undertaken.

“Mr. John H. Duncan, whose design for the monument was accepted, and who has held the position of architect, has made all of his other interests yield to the supervision of this memorial, with which his name will always be inseparably connected, and which will forever stand as a monument to his architectural skill.

Architect
Duncan

“Mr. Edward F. Cragin, of Chicago, was prominently identified with the association during the most active period of the work of

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THE NEW
UNITED
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1865
TO
—

Engineer
Gillespie

raising the fund, and by his suggestiveness, fertility of resources, and excellent equipment for the duty he performed he contributed invaluable aid, and it is due him that at this time public acknowledgment should be made of the important services he rendered to this great national work.

“The acknowledgments of the association are also due to Col. G. L. Gillespie, of the United States Engineer Corps, for his efficient services in giving the Construction Department the benefit of his long experience and high scientific attainments.

“The services of Mr. A. Dorflinger, the engineer of the association, have been of very substantial value in the progress of the work. His professional skill and intimate knowledge of the most advanced methods of construction entitle him to very high commendation.

“Mr. J. Massey Rhind, the sculptor, displayed his skill to great perfection in the decoration in high relief sculpture, which adds so much to the ornamental features of the monument.

“It is a great pleasure to make public acknowledgment to Mr. D. O. Mills, who, besides being a contributor to the fund, has for five years generously furnished the general offices for the association free of charge.

“Mr. John T. Brady, contractor, has throughout the entire work of construction been engaged upon portions of the work, and his devotion to the interests of the enterprise have commended him warmly to the association.

“One of the most cherished memories of my life will be the recollection of the privilege of sharing in the labors of such honored colleagues as those who have been connected with me in this association.

“And now, Mr. Mayor, it only remains for me to formally transmit through you to the nation’s metropolis this memorial tomb, which henceforth is to remain in the custody of the city over which you have the honor to preside.”

The President and others congratulated General Porter when he had finished, and Mayor Strong replied:

Reply of
Mayor
Strong

“Erected as it was by the voluntary contributions of nearly 100,000 of our fellow-citizens, mostly from the territory of the Greater New York, this magnificent tomb will forever perpetuate the name and fame of one of the bravest military chieftains of the country. I render grateful acknowledgment to the municipal authorities who

selected this classic spot to receive his remains. The citizens of our city will be justly proud of their action, for here will be the shrine where his old comrades will worship, and where the people of a grateful nation will journey to offer the silent tribute of admiration. Let it be the Mecca where posterity for ages to come will gather fresh inspiration for patriotism. Great in war, greater in peace, let his memory never fade from the heart of a grateful nation. As he invoked peace for us, let us see that his ashes repose in peace so long as the country exists he so heroically defended, aye, so long as the waters of the Hudson flow silently by this noble structure. From this day forth let us hope that every passing steamboat, going in either direction, shall toll its bell in recognition of the great services rendered this country by the silent soldier who sleeps within these granite walls. For such an object, gentlemen of the New York Legislature, your request would have the weight of law. As he served his country in peace and war, making our present conditions possible, we this day reconsecrate ourselves to all that is best in American citizenship, to all that is best in this Government founded by the fathers, preserved by our martyred heroes, and blessed by the grace of Almighty God."

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STATES
1865
TO

A Mecca
for
Patriots

The invaluable services of General Porter in bringing about success in this magnificent work deserve record. At a meeting of the Grant Monument Association, held on April 21st, and fully attended, the following, offered by General Butterfield, was unanimously adopted:

"The Grant Monument Association was charged by the Legislature in its act of February 3, 1886, with the duty of procuring voluntary contributions and erecting therewith a suitable monument or other memorial to the memory of the illustrious General Grant at Riverside Park. That duty has been performed, and the association now authorizes its President in behalf of the corporation to formally deliver the completed structure to the custody of the Mayor, Aldermen, and Commonalty of the city of New York.

General
Porter's
Services

"The association directs that the official record of its corporate acts for the period ending April 27, 1897, be closed by the entry of the following minute:

"The chief and substantial credit for the successful accomplishment of this work of patriotic sentiment, of affectionate regard for

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UNITED
STATES
1865
TO
—Gen.
Porter's
Faith in
the
People

the memory of our great leader, and of national self-respect, is due to the President of the association, Gen. Horace Porter.

“He was elected to the presidency at a time when, for more than six years, the undertaking had languished, when the original design seemed to have been imperilled.

“His affection for the chief to whom he had been bound by the closest ties in war and peace, his patriotism and his civic pride inspired him with an unselfish devotion.

“His strong personality infused his spirit throughout the whole association. Confidence in his will and his ability renewed public expectation of success.

“His faith in the people's feeling for General Grant led him to appeal directly to them. His power of organization and capacity for administrative details enabled him to reach them. By the selection and direction of faithful and efficient assistants, by organizing committees in every trade and calling, by pressing home the sense of duty to every individual citizen, he accomplished in sixty days what six years had failed to bring about, and procured the necessary fund. And this fund came from more than 60,000 voluntary contributors, so that the monument which we are about to dedicate is built not with money compelled by taxation from unwilling hands, but wholly with the free offerings of grateful hearts.

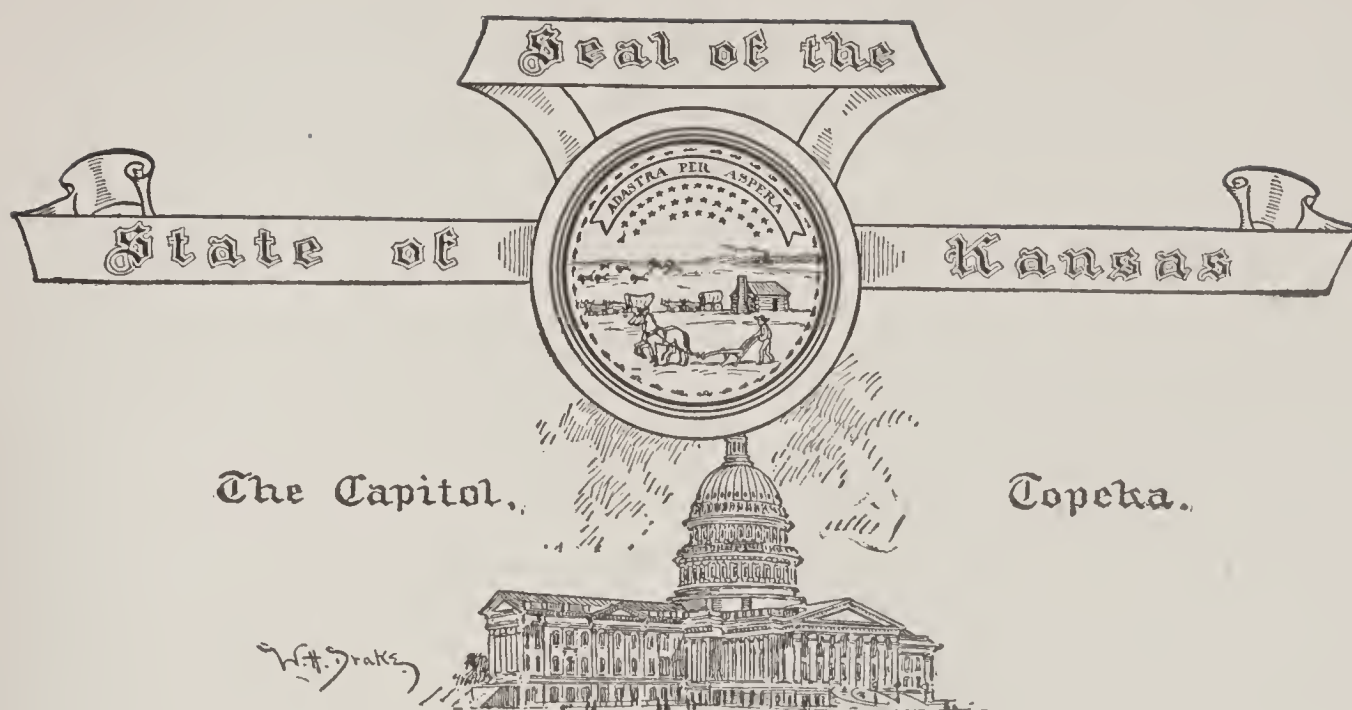
“Then with unremitting care he directed the building. He made every contract, and saw that it was faithfully performed. He scrutinized every detail. He enforced rigid economy, so that the expenses of administration have been but a small fraction of the interest received upon the fund; and every contributor may know that every penny of his contribution has actually gone into the construction of the monument itself. With constant thought and labor he has carried out the plan, and kept the cost within the fund. So that the completion of the work may be regarded with unmarred satisfaction.

The
Grati-
tude due
Him

“For this great public service we believe General Porter to be entitled to the gratitude of the whole American people, and especially to that of the citizens of New York, whose honor was so deeply involved.

“This record is made to express the grateful appreciation of his associates in the Grant Monument Association.”

Everybody will recognize the justice of the foregoing tribute to General Porter's splendid services in behalf of the Grant monument fund.



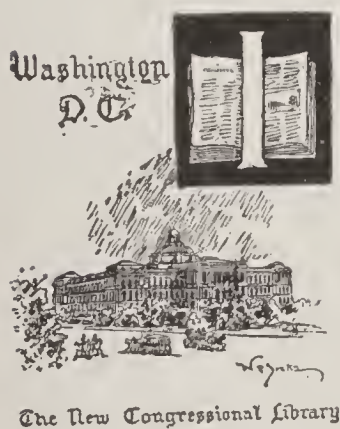
CHAPTER XCVII

M'KINLEY'S ADMINISTRATION—1897—(CONCLUDED)

[*Authorities:* If the brocard, "Figures don't lie," be true, this chapter should be one of the most valuable in the entire work. It consists largely of statistics from which the thoughtful student may make many interesting deductions. An illustration of the way in which an expert statistician can extract from an array of tabulated facts expressed by figures interesting and striking information is furnished by citations from an article in *The North American Review* by Mr. Mulhall.

One of our own writers on political economy has discussed in a very able manner one of the subjects to which Mr. Mulhall alludes—the relation at various times between the urban and the rural population. In the fabled "Golden Age" of the Romans, there were no cities. Every one lived in peace and contentment with his flocks and herds. The political economist referred to insists that poverty, vice, and crime increase only when men leave the country and collect in urban masses. In the early history of a country nobody is very rich or very poor, but every one who will put forth proper effort can provide sustenance for himself and those dependent upon him. Mr. Mulhall's deductions seem to confirm the theory that as civilization advances "the rich become richer and the poor poorer." It is a matter worthy of the most careful investigation. If the theory be true, however, there is no apparent remedy.

For the material in this chapter, the author is much indebted to *The North American Review*, Henry Gannett, and Orren M. Donalson, in *The Irrigation Age*.]



IN view of the financial depression existing throughout the country, and with the purpose of securing what was deemed to be the necessary tariff legislation, the President convened Congress in extraordinary session, on Monday, March 15th.* Hon. Thomas Brackett Reed, of Maine, was again chosen Speaker, and the task of framing the new tariff bill was entrusted to Representative Nelson Dingley, Junr., of Maine, the chairman of the Ways and Means Committee.

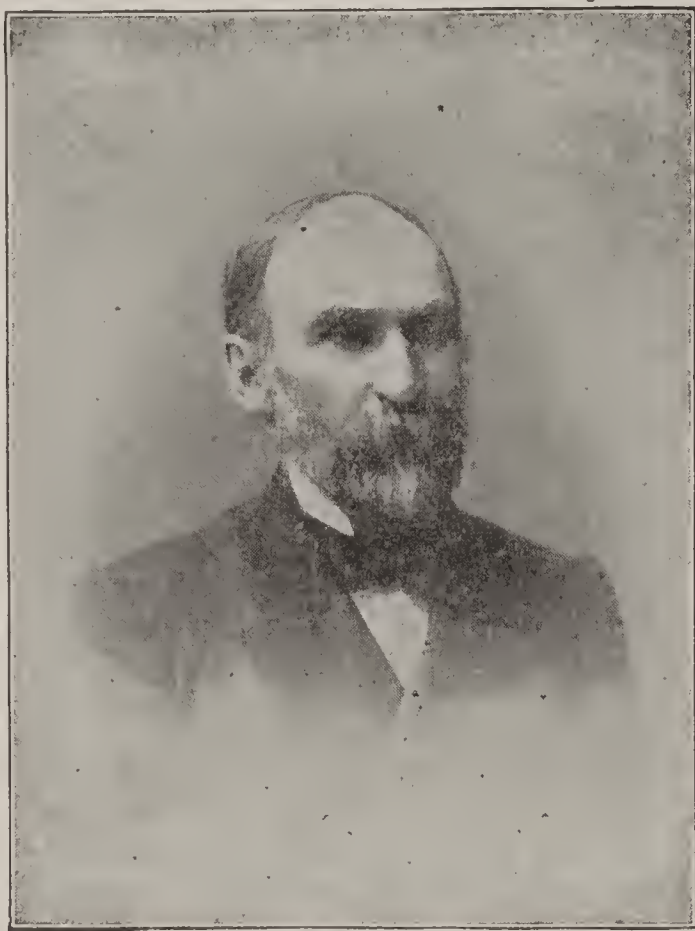
Extra
Session
of
Con-
gress
called

* The first "extra" session of Congress was called for May 15, 1797, on account of troubles with France; the second was for October 17, 1803, because of the secret cession

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When the McKinley administration came into power, it was confronted by a deficiency of revenue amounting to more than \$200,000,000, all of which had accumulated during the preceding four years.



NELSON DINGLEY, JR.

Secretary Carlisle estimated in his last annual report that \$45,000,000 would be added to this by the 1st of July, 1897. This deficiency was due to a falling off in receipts from duties on imports, which amounted to more than \$60,000,000 per annum.

The problem, therefore, was so to revise the tariff laws as to restore the revenue that was lost by the revision of 1894. This important task was committed to the able representative, Nelson Dingley, Junr., of Maine, chairman of the Ways and Means Committee. Mr. Dingley has explained that,

without indulging in any mere theories, he aimed to meet the conditions thrust upon us.

**Tariff
Bill
passed
by the
House**

This tariff bill, which is essentially a Republican measure, passed the House, March 31st, by a vote of 205 to 122. All the Republicans present voted for the bill, and were joined by five Southern Democrats and one Populist. Twenty-one Populists and five Silver Republicans refused to vote. An amendment was adopted, providing that the new rates shall apply to goods which were not purchased and

of Louisiana by Spain to France, whereby New Orleans was proclaimed closed as a place of deposit for merchandise; the third was for October 26, 1807, the cause being the firing upon the *Chesapeake* by the *Leopard*; the fourth was for the 4th of November, 1811, because of threatened complications with Great Britain; the fifth was for September 19, 1814, because of questions connected with the war; the sixth was for September 4, 1837, because of the stress produced by the hard times; the seventh was for May 31, 1841, because of the condition of the revenues and finances of the country; the eighth was for August 21, 1856, to make provision for the army; the ninth was for July 4, 1861, because of the Civil War; the tenth was for October 15, 1877, for the purpose of passing the army and deficiency bill; the eleventh was for March 18, 1879, in order to make the necessary preparation for legislation at the regular session; the twelfth was for August 7, 1893, with a view of relieving the general financial distress throughout the country.

ordered to be shipped to this country prior to April 1, 1897, the object being to prevent an excessive importation of goods at lower rates than are levied by this bill.

The tariff bill was taken up in the Senate, May 24th, and was under consideration for seven weeks. Mr. Aldrich opened the debate with a speech, May 25th, and the discussion continued until July 7th, when the bill was passed by a vote of 38 to 28. Naturally numerous points of difference developed, and the bill went to conference, whose report came up before the Senate on July 20th, and was debated until 3 o'clock, July 24th, when by unanimous consent the vote was taken. The passage of the bill was by a vote of 40 to 30, the majority being the same as that of the original bill. The affirmative vote included 37 Republicans, one Democrat (McEnery), one Silver Republican (Jones of Nevada), and one Populist (Stewart). The negative vote was cast by 28 Democrats and two Populists (Harris and Turner).

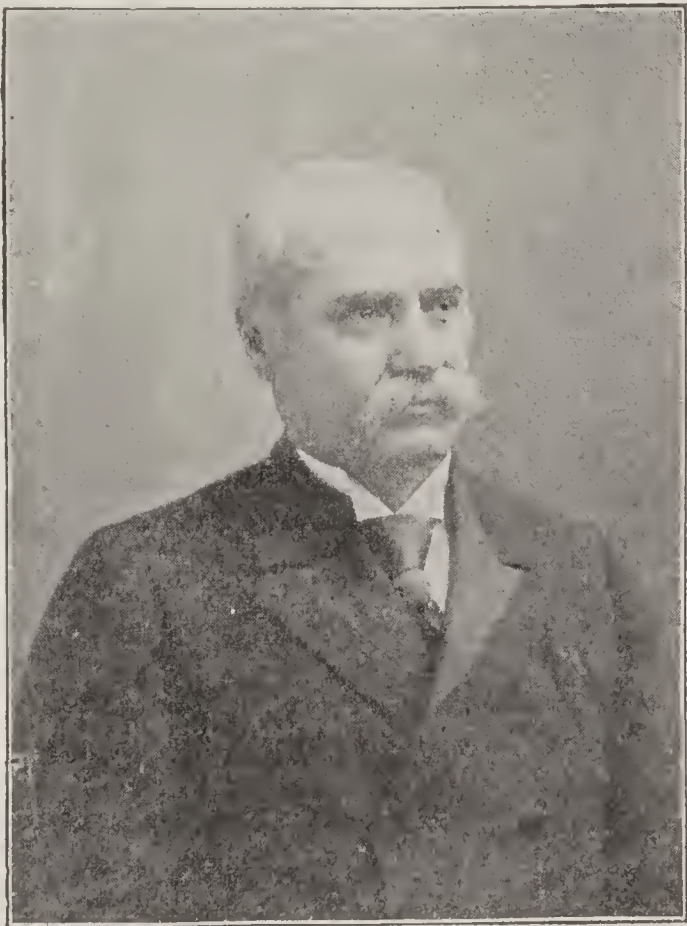
The bill was promptly carried to the House, where Speaker Reed signed the measure, his announcement of having done so being received with Republican applause. Then the document was taken back to the Senate, where Vice-President Hobart wrote his name under that of Speaker Reed. The bill was immediately carried to the White House by Chairman Dingley of the Ways and Means Committee. President McKinley, in company with Secretary of the Treasury Gage, Attorney-General McKenna, Postmaster-General Gary, and Secretary of Agriculture Wilson, was waiting in the Cabinet room. At four minutes past four o'clock the Presidential signature was attached, and the tariff bill became the law of the land.

Great hopes were entertained of the beneficent results of this measure which had been so long under consideration. The business

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TO

Tariff
Bill
passed
by the
Senate



N. W. ALDRICH

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TO

of the country had been unsettled for several years, and the financial depression and distress were more general than ever before. It was the uncertainty that made capital timid and acted as a blight upon in-



W. B. ALLISON

dustry and enterprise everywhere. The indications now pointed to a universal revival of business and the return of the blessed boon of "good times."

On the day that the bill became law, Representative Dingley signed the following noteworthy expression of his view:

"The country has reason to rejoice over the final enactment into law to-day of a tariff bill. Framed, as it is, to secure adequate revenue for carrying on the Government, and, at the same time, with duties so adjusted as to open up new opportunities for our own labor, the

law will relieve the country of the uncertainty that has existed, and set the wheels of business in motion.

Representative
Dingley's
Views

"It means the beginning of that prosperity that was displaced in 1892, after thirty years' continuance. This law will give increased opportunities to American labor, afford the masses a purchasing power which they have lost under the conditions of the past four years—a purchasing power which will enable them to buy more of the farmer, more of the merchant, more of the manufacturer, and more of every producer in the land. Then confidence will return, prices will begin to rise to a paying point, and prosperity set in upon our country. The operations of the law will increase our revenues to that point where every expenditure will be met, and there will be a surplus left with which the Government can resume the payment of the principal of the public debts.

"As to the increase in duties in the present law compared to former bills, the largest increase has been made in the duty on sugar, partly for revenue and partly for the purpose of encouraging the pro-

duction of our own sugar. It is this increase which raises the average equivalent *ad valorem* apparently above that of the tariff in 1890, in which sugar was free.

“We have heard much reckless denunciation of the proposed tariff as ‘the highest ever known,’ but, as a matter of fact, the average *ad valorem* of the tariff of 1824 was 50½ per cent., and 61¾ per cent. in 1830, 48½ per cent. in 1867, and this, too, before undervaluation became a science.”

At the same time Senator Allison expressed himself in the following cheering words :

“My estimate of revenues for this fiscal year from tariff schedules is from \$177,000,000 to \$180,000,000, and from rebate on beer and cigarettes, \$5,000,000 more.

“If internal revenue receipts shall amount to \$160,000,000, as I think they will, excluding the above, and miscellaneous receipts the same as for last year, the revenues will equal expenditures, or within five or ten millions, and inasmuch as many items of appropriation, notably those for rivers and harbors and public buildings, and for the navy, are in a measure discretionary, if revenues should fall short a few millions, expenditures can easily be curtailed to make revenues and expenditures equal; or there will be no harm in using five or ten millions, or even more, from the surplus in the Treasury, as after this year the bill, under ordinary and normal conditions, will yield ample revenue.

“I have no doubt the passage of the bill will have the immediate effect of reviving our industries, as the uncertainty which has prevailed for the last few months as respects both sales and purchases of raw materials of production will have passed away, and both will be made freely, in the belief that we are to have stable conditions for at least four years.

“Furthermore, now that our own people will have full opportunity for competition with foreign producers, they will be able to furnish the markets very largely as compared with the last few years. Labor, securing steady and constant employment, will be steady purchasers of things they need and do not produce.”

The Dingley tariff bill does not please everybody; no such bill can ever be framed. But it meets with general concurrence, and will probably be final for a goodly number of years to come. Particular schedules are likely to be changed in order to meet changing condi-

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—

Senator
Allison's
Views

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—

Work of
the
Dawes
Com-
mission

tions, but such modifications can hardly be important enough to furnish issues to great national parties. The people feel that a tariff policy having been established, business prudence, except so far as specific changes in schedules may prove desirable, requires that it be let alone.

An agreement made by the Dawes Commission with the representatives of the Choctaw and Chickasaw tribes foreshadows the breaking up of the old order of things in the Indian Territory. This agreement allows the tribal governments to continue for eight years from March 4, 1898, the delay in the dissolution being intended to allow time for the operation of the great changes provided for, including the allotment of lands in severalty, and the admission of Indians to citizenship on the expiration of their tribal existence. The Cherokees at present strongly oppose this change, but it cannot be doubted that they and the Creeks and Seminoles will ultimately consent, with the result that the whole tribal system, with community of lands, will disappear from among the Five Tribes.

The country was stirred during the summer of 1897 by the reports, which proved well founded, of the discovery of enormous deposits of gold on the Yukon River in Alaska. Two-score veteran miners went into the region the previous fall, not one of whom possessed more than his outfit and a few hundred dollars. When they came out, each brought from \$5,000 to \$90,000, while many left behind them claims valued at \$20,000 to \$1,000,000, which were to be worked by their partners. Naturally it was believed at first that these reports were greatly exaggerated, but the display of the gold itself by the returning miners removed all doubt of the amazing richness of the new find.

The
Klondike
Gold
Fields

A company of these fortunate individuals reached Seattle, July 17th, direct from St. Michael's, at the mouth of the Yukon, where they had been at work in the Klondike placer-mining districts, from which more than \$1,500,000 in gold was taken the previous winter. The party brought back one and one-half tons of gold in nugget and dust, worth in round numbers \$1,000,000.

The Klondike is a river flowing into the Yukon, in the Northwest Territory. The distance is fifty miles by river from Forty Mile, on the Alaska boundary, to the scene of the latest finds, and about forty miles in a direct line. A poor miner named George McCormack was the discoverer of the Klondike placer diggings, the

first claim being staked at Bonanza Creek, emptying into the Klondike, August 17, 1896. Within the following year 400 claims were located, and the camp grew to 5,000 population. The days of the Argonauts in California had come again.

James Ladue, who had lived in Alaska for fifteen years, was the

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MAP OF THE KLONDIKE GOLD DIGGINGS AND VICINITY

founder of Dawson City. He built the first house and raised the first American flag. The population soon grew to several thousands, but with the aid of the Canadian Government there was very little lawlessness. The town, beautifully situated on the Yukon, near the mouth of the Klondike, promises to become the mining centre of the Northwest Territory. The creeks comprising the bonanza districts are Bonanza, Eldorado, Victoria, Adams, McCormack, Reddy Bui-

Dawson
City

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lion, Nugget Gulch, Bear, Baker, and Chee-Chaw-Ka. The Main Fork, Hunker, and Gold Bottom creeks are in the Hunker district.

Mrs. Tom Lippy was the first woman who crossed the divide and passed into the new Klondike camp. She accompanied her husband to Eldorado Creek, where they lived in a tent until a small log-cabin was built. One reason for the absence of lawlessness is that the Canadian Government does not permit men to carry sidearms. All miners when they enter the district are disarmed by the police.



IN ALASKA WATERS, STEAMING UNDER DIFFICULTIES

Dr. W. H. Dall, one of the curators of the National Museum, Washington, has spent much time in Alaska on geographical expeditions and is thoroughly informed regarding the country. His statement, therefore, regarding the newly discovered Klondike gold-fields is of value and importance.

Location
of the
Klondike
Gold-
Fields

“I have no doubt that the facts as told by the press are in the main strictly correct. The Klondike gold-fields, however, are not in Alaskan territory. They are in the British provinces, in what is known as the Northwest Territories. The Klondike River, which has been on the map for about twenty years, but not under that name, branches from the Yukon River not far from the boundary between Canada and Alaska.

“The nearest way to reach the Klondike River, which is a very

small one, and the gold-fields is from Chilkoot Inlet. Steamers run from Sitka there and from Seattle and Tacoma. The distance from the head of Chilkoot Inlet to the Klondike is about 500 miles. To reach there it is necessary to cross the coast mountains and the chain of lakes and short streams which form the headwaters of the Yukon River. It is on these streams that the gold is found. The country is a rolling one, covered with grass.

“There is a short, hot summer of about four months, with prac-

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SUNSET IN LYNN CANAL, ALASKA

tically no spring or autumn. The ice begins to break up in the rivers about May 25th, and navigation commences on the Yukon about the first week in June. It begins to get very cool by the latter part of September, and is almost winter weather by the first of October. The winter is very cold and dry, with not more than three feet of snow. There is only about three inches of rainfall during the winter, and not more than a foot or ten inches the whole year around.

“It is a country in which it is very hard to find food, as there is practically no game. Before the whites went into the region there were not more than 300 natives. They have hard work to support themselves on account of the scarcity of game.

Scarcity
of Food

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“The thermometer sometimes goes down to 68° below zero in January and February. The cold, however, is not so intense as may be imagined, and 68° there could not be compared with the same here. The dress is mostly of furs in the winter, that used by the natives, and unless there is a sharp wind blowing one may keep fairly comfortable.

“When I was on the Yukon I did not find gold, but knew of it being taken out in profitable quantities for fifteen years or more.



JUNEAU, ALASKA,—VIEW FROM STEAMER

It was first discovered there in 1866. In 1880, when I was up in that country, my last trip having been made two years ago, the first party of prospectors who made mining profitable started out. The gold is found on the various tributaries of the Yukon, and I have been within a comparatively short distance of the Klondike fields. I made one trip to Circle City.

The
Gold-
Bearing
Belt

“The gold-bearing belt of Northwestern America contains all the gold-fields extending into British Columbia and what is known as the Northwest Territories and Alaska. The Yukon really runs along in that belt for 500 or 600 miles. The bed of the main river is in the valley.

“The yellow metal is not found in paying quantities in the main river, but in the small streams which cut through the mountains on



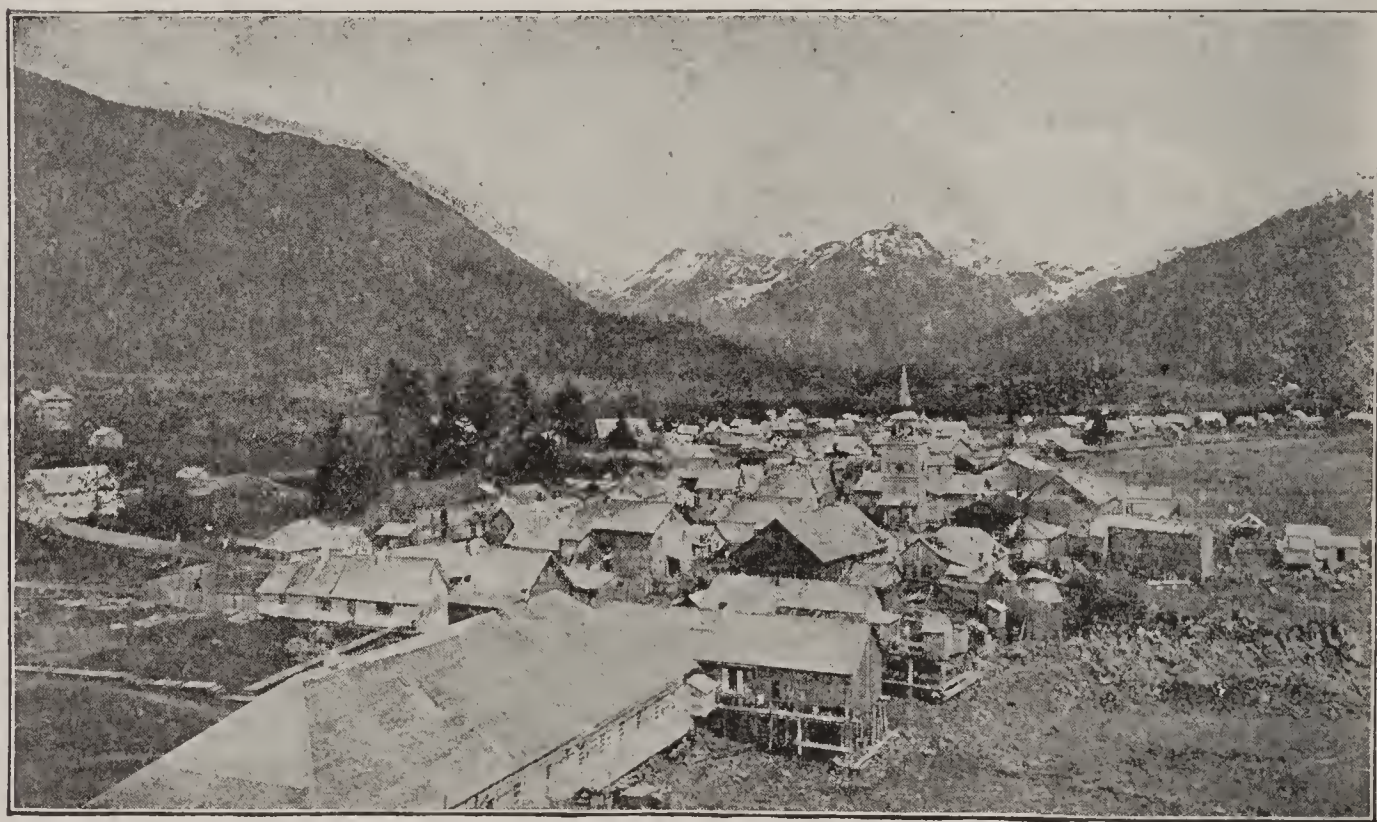
SEATTLE, WASH.

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either side. Mud and mineral matter are carried into the main river, while the gold is left on the rough bottoms of these side streams. In most cases the gold lies at the bottom of thick gravel deposits. The gold is covered by frozen gravel in the winter. During the summer, until the snow is all melted, the surface is covered by muddy torrents. When summer is over and the springs begin to freeze, the streams dry up. At the approach of winter, in order to get at the gold, the miners find it necessary to dig into the gravel formation.

“There are two routes to the fields, one which I have mentioned



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF SITKA, ALASKA

before, from Chilkoot Inlet over the mountains. This is about 500 miles. The other is up the Yukon River, which is about 1,500 miles in length, or three times as far as the other. Flat-bottomed steamers run from St. Michael's up the Yukon. The return trip from the fields is much easier, and has been taken by the miners who have made their piles and recently returned to the United States with them by way of Seattle.

Difficul-
ties of
Trans-
portation

“The Pacific Coast Steamship Company runs steamers every four days from Seattle. The manner in which supplies can be transported over the mountains is by mules, taking time and expense. As I remarked before, it is a country in which there is practically no sustenance, and food must be taken to the gold-fields.”

Dr. Dall said that the natives are peaceable. He is sanguine as

to the outcome of the gold discovery from what he knows about the country, and he does not assert, as many others do, that the reports from Klondike are greatly exaggerated.

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If anything more is needed to prove that the United States is among the greatest nations of ancient or modern times, such proof is furnished by a careful study of the latest statistics of our country.

The
Greatest
of
Nations

The well-known English statistician, Michael G. Mulhall, in a recent article in *The North American Review* on "The Power and Wealth of the United States," says:

"If we take a survey of mankind in ancient or modern times as regards the physical, mechanical, and intellectual force of nations, we find nothing to compare with the United States in this present year of 1895, and that the United States possess by far the greatest productive power in the world."

What a striking tribute is rendered by this intelligent Englishman in his statement that the absolute effective force of the American people is now more than three times what it was in 1860, and that the United States possess almost as much energy as Great Britain, Germany, and France collectively, and that the ratio falling to each American is more than what two Englishmen or Germans have at their disposal. He shows by a careful comparison between the conditions in these different countries that an ordinary farm hand in the United States raises as much grain as three in England, four in France, five in Germany, or six in Austria. One man in America can produce as much flour as will feed 250, whereas in Europe one man feeds only 30 persons.

Mr. Mulhall proves further that the intellectual power of the great republic is in harmony with the industrial and mechanical, eighty-seven per cent. of the total population over ten years of age being able to read and write.

"It may be fearlessly asserted," says he, "that in the history of the human race no nation ever before possessed 41,000,000 instructed citizens."

Our
Intellect-
ual
Power

The Post-Office returns are appealed to by Mr. Mulhall in support of this part of his statement, these showing that, in the number of letters per inhabitant yearly, the United States are much ahead of all other nations.

According to the figures of Mr. Mulhall the average annual in-

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TO

crement of the United States from 1821 to 1890 was nine hundred and one millions of dollars, and he adds that "the new wealth added during a single generation—that is, in the period of thirty years between 1860 and 1890—was no less than forty-nine milliards



GENERAL POST OFFICE, NEW YORK

of dollars, which is one milliard more than the total wealth of Great Britain."

Urban
and
Rural
Wealth

Classifying the whole wealth of the Union under the two heads, urban and rural, Mr. Mulhall finds that rural or agricultural wealth has only quadrupled in forty years, while urban wealth has multiplied sixteenfold. Before 1860 the accumulation of wealth for each rural worker was greater than that corresponding to persons of the urban classes; but the farming interests suffered severely by reason of the Civil War, and since then the accumulation of wealth among

urban workers has been greatly more than that among rural workers, a fact which Mr. Mulhall thinks explains the influx of population into towns and cities.

In a series of figures Mr. Mulhall shows that the “rise in wealth and increase in wages came almost hand in hand.” In dealing with the development of farm values, he makes the following statement:

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TO
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MAP SHOWING THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE

“If the United States had no urban population or industries whatever, the advance of agricultural interests would be enough to claim the admiration of mankind, for it has no parallel in history.”

Mr. Henry Gannett, in his book “The Building of a Nation,” has grouped together a remarkable collection of facts about the population, industries, and resources of our country, which are of the highest importance.

It will be remembered that at the close of the Revolution our territory was limited on the west by the Mississippi, and on the

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TO

Growth
of
Territory

south by the northern boundary of Florida. To this was added the Louisiana purchase in 1803, which brought to us 1,171,931 square miles, if we include the present States of Oregon, Washington, and Idaho, which, though not a part of the purchase, were acquired as the direct result through occupation and settlement. Following this, in 1821, came the Florida purchase of 59,268 square miles, costing \$5,000,000; then, in 1845, the annexation of Texas, 375,239 square miles; in 1848, the Mexican cession of 545,783 square miles, costing \$15,000,000; in 1853, the Gadsden purchase, at the southern part of what are now Arizona and New Mexico, 45,535 square miles, costing \$10,000,000; in 1867, Alaska, 570,000 square miles, costing \$7,200,000. Thus, for about \$50,000,000 in money, our domain grew from 827,844 square miles in 1790 to 3,603,884 square miles in 1870 and to-day.*

But a most striking fact is that as the population, which was only 3,929,214 in 1790, had increased to 62,622,250 on June 1, 1890, and, indeed, including the people of Alaska and the Indians not then counted, to about 63,000,000, the density of population had grown far more than the area. The latter was in 1890 about four and a half times that of a century before, and yet the density of population, in 1790 only 4.75 inhabitants per square mile on the average, had increased to 17.37 per square mile in 1890, even with the vast untenanted regions of Alaska to bring down the average.

Growth
of
Popula-
tion

But the comfortable growth still possible is shown by the fact that while our country is nearly as large as all Europe, it is exceeded in density of population by every country of Europe except Russia and Norway. And the most populous countries are from ten to twenty times as thickly settled.

The land surface of the United States has two systems of uplift,

* There are remaining in 1897 only three Territories in the United States, exclusive of the District of Columbia, the Indian Territory, and Alaska, which does not yet dream of Statehood. The three Territories are Arizona, New Mexico, and Oklahoma. The area of Arizona is 113,000 square miles, of New Mexico, 122,000 square miles, and Oklahoma, with No-Man's Land, 39,000 square miles. The present population of Arizona is about 70,000, of New Mexico, 175,000, and of Oklahoma, 105,000. There is a general sentiment that these three Territories should be joined together and admitted as one State. They would have a land area slightly more than that of Texas, but with only one-tenth of its population. This action would remove most of the objection to the separate admission of the States. The Republicans oppose the Statehood of New Mexico and Arizona because of their predominant silver sentiment, while the Democrats, who formerly favored their admission, now dislike the preponderance it would add to the States long ago admitted,



UPPER GEYSER BASIN, YELLOWSTONE PARK

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Marvel-
lous
Forces of
Nature

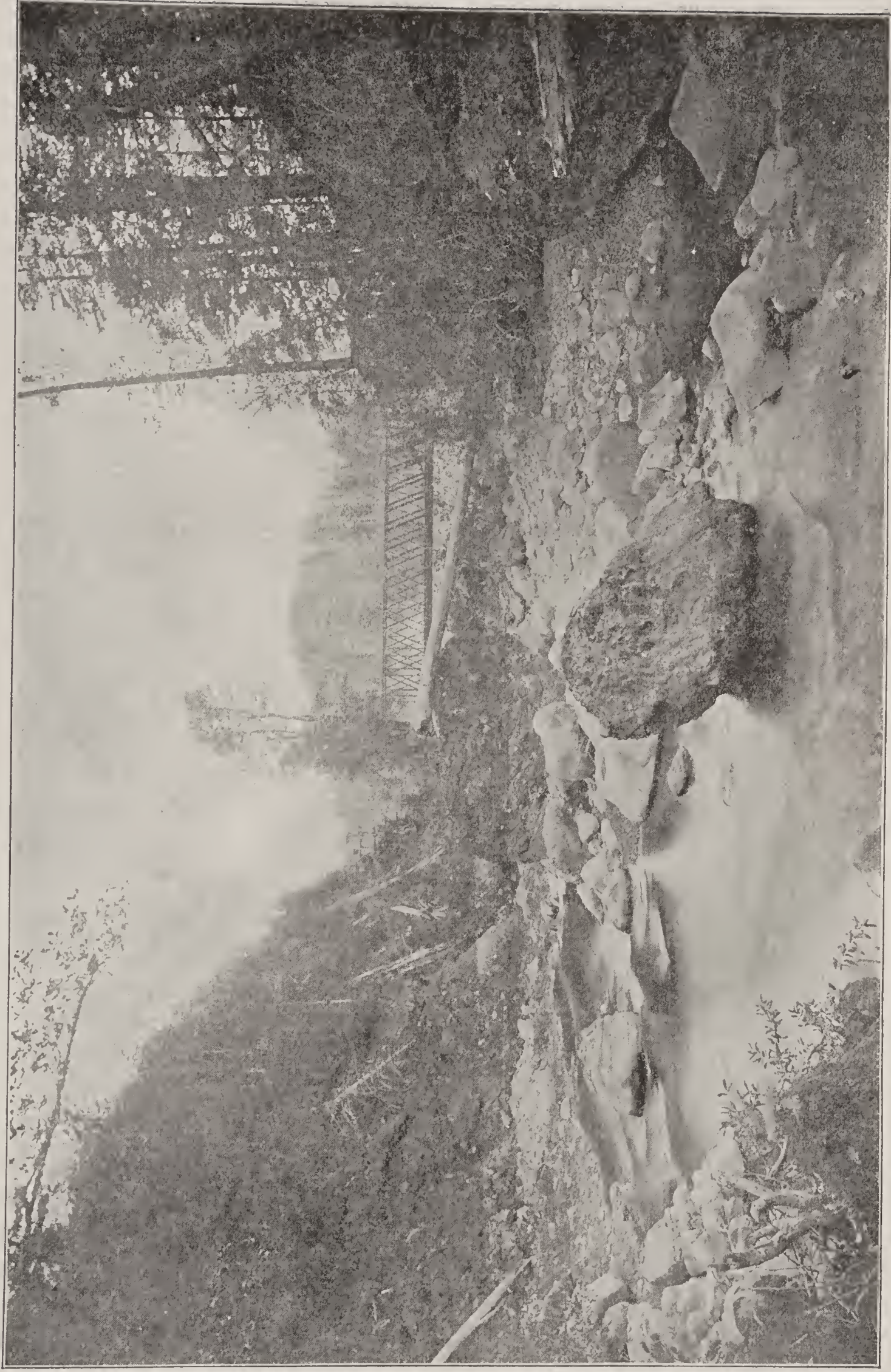
the Appalachian and the Cordilleran or Rocky, and with the great stretch of the country in both latitude and longitude, there is a wonderful variety of climate, soil, and vegetation. Nowhere, perhaps, have the forces of nature been exerted upon a more marvellous scale, eroding cañons and gorges, forming vast basalt plains, and changing trunks of trees to amethyst, opal, chalcedony, and quartz crystal. The hot springs and geysers for number and magnitude completely eclipse those of all the rest of the world together. Where Iceland has two or three active geysers, petty by comparison, Yellowstone Park alone has hundreds. There are thousands of hot springs, some of them covering areas of many acres, and the amount of boiling water ejected from the earth is almost incredible.

The temperature of the country in the East is fairly uniform, considering the range of latitude, etc., but in the mountain region of the West there are great excesses. "At Yuma, near the mouth of the Colorado River, the temperature in summer often exceeds 115° , and when it falls to 100° people put on their flannels. On the other hand, in Montana, temperatures of 52° below zero have been repeatedly recorded; although on the whole the climate of Montana is exceptionally mild, considering its latitude and altitude." Taking the whole land together, "it is one of the wettest and one of the driest countries on the globe; it is one of the hottest and one of the coldest."

The approximate area of the public lands, excluding Alaska, being reckoned at 1,440,000,000 acres, we find that up to June 30, 1892, 873,000,000 acres had been alienated; about 130,000,000 in homesteads, 224,000,000 in cash sales, 79,000,000 in railway land grants patented, 70,000,000 in swamp-lands to States, 61,000,000 in land bounties for military service, etc. Of the 567,000,000 acres remaining, perhaps 100,000,000 must be allowed for Indian reservations and about 103,000,000 for grants to railroads not yet patented. Most of the lands not taken up are mountainous or arid.

Our
Rank in
Popula-
tion

China is the most populous country on the globe, with 360,000,000 to 385,000,000 people; India is the next; then Russia; while fourth comes our country, and fifth is Germany. Our land has doubled its population in the last thirty years, while in the same period France has increased 3 per cent., and Great Britain and Ireland 29 per cent. Maine and Vermont are practically not increasing, and Nevada has been actually decreasing. In 1790, Virginia was



RAILROAD CROSSING, EAGLE CREEK CASCADES, COLORADO RIVER, COL.

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the most populous State in the Union, with Pennsylvania second. New York in 1810 reached the second place, and in 1820 the first place, Virginia then being second. In 1830, Pennsylvania pushed up to second place again, and has held it ever since. In 1790 the third place was occupied by North Carolina; between 1840 and 1880 it was held by Ohio; while in 1890 Illinois secured it. At that census, New York showed 5,997,853 people; Pennsylvania, 5,258,014; Illinois, 3,826,351; Ohio, 3,672,316. Missouri was fifth with 2,679,184.

The
Centre of
Popula-
tion

The centre of population in 1790 was about 23 miles east of Baltimore; in 1800, about 18 miles west of Baltimore; in 1810, about 40 miles northwest of Washington; in 1820, about 16 miles north of Woodstock, Va.; in 1830, about 19 miles southwest of Moorefield, W. Va.; in 1840, 16 miles south of Clarksburg, W. Va.; in 1850, 23 miles south of Parkersburg, W. Va.; in 1860, 20 miles south of Chillicothe, Ohio; in 1870, 48 miles east of Cincinnati; in 1880, 8 miles west of Cincinnati; in 1890, 20 miles east of Columbus, Ind. Perhaps the most remarkable feature in this march is the directness of its westerly progress. In the full century it has not varied half a degree from a due west direction, or gone north or south of a belt about 25 miles broad. Yet in this century it has moved across more than nine meridians, or a distance of 505 miles westward. In comparison with the centre of population we may note the centre of area, which, excluding Alaska, is in the northern part of Kansas.

Ratio
of Urban
and Rural
Popula-
tion

An arbitrary rule must be followed, of course, in determining what is urban and what is rural population. The census office treats as urban all concentrated bodies exceeding 8,000 in number. On that basis it finds that while in 1790 the urban population was but 131,472, and the rural 3,797,742, a century later the former had increased to 18,284,385, while the latter was 44,337,865. The proportion of urban to total population in 1790 was 3.35, whereas in 1890 it had reached 29.20. In fact, in 1790 this country contained but six cities of more than 8,000 people each, while a century later it had 443. The total population had become 16 times as great, but the urban population 139 times as great. The North Atlantic States contain the greatest proportion of the urban element, 51.81 per cent., Rhode Island leading off with 78.80, followed by Massachusetts with 69.90, and New York 59.50.

In 1870 there were but 14 cities of more than 100,000 inhabitants each. In 1880 there were 20, and in 1890 there were 28. These cities combined had 9,788,150 people, or 15.6 per cent. of the whole population. There were 11 cities at the last census that exceeded 250,000 each. Mr. Gannett notes that within a radius of fifteen miles of the City Hall of New York, and tributary to that city as the metropolitan district is to London, live three and a quarter millions of people, or enough to make it the second city in size upon the globe, as shown by the creation of Greater New York.

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The average size of families has diminished from 5.55 persons in 1850 to 4.93 in 1890, which is over 11 per cent. The highest average is in the Southern States, due primarily to the large proportion of colored people, among whom the birth rate is exceptionally great. But the families of the whites in the South are also larger than the average, and even equal those of the North Central States, where the Germans, Norwegians, and Swedes increase the average.

Average
Size of
Families

As to sexes, the males at the last census numbered 32,067,880, and the females 30,554,370. This is a larger proportion of males than in 1850 or in 1860. The facts show, it is said, a tendency to an increase in the proportion of males, which has exceeded that of females certainly during the last forty years, although the tendency received a set-back during the Civil War, from which it is now recovering. A table shows that in Europe, while the numbers of the two sexes are nearly equal, the females are in excess, the proportion ranging from 50.58 in the Netherlands to 51.46 in the United Kingdom and 52.10 in Norway. In our country the percentage of females at the last census was 48.79, and that of males 51.21, the excess of the latter being ascribed to immigration. No doubt emigration accounts, also, for some of the figures in European countries; yet in Spain, where there is comparatively little of it, we find but 49.04 males to 50.96 females, and in Austria, where there is not excessive emigration, 48.91 to 51.09.

Of course, the difference between our own States in this matter is great. The factories on the Atlantic border attract great numbers of female operatives, while the outdoor occupations of the West draw many males. In Montana there are two males to one female, and nearly as great a ratio in Wyoming. On the other hand, in New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Maryland, Virginia, and both Carolinas, females

Ratio of
Males
and
Females

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Negro
and
Mixed
Races

are in excess, although this excess is not great. In the District of Columbia they constitute 52.44 per cent., and in Massachusetts, which stands next, 51.42.

Of our total of 62,622,250 people at the last census there were 7,470,040 of negro or mixed blood, including mulattos, quadroons, and octoroons. This is a little over 12 per cent., and it shows an increase from 6,580,793 in 1880 and from 4,880,009 in 1870. Of course the relative proportion of increase has been greater for the whites. The faulty character of the census of 1870 even aroused some question as to whether the colored element was not relatively losing with enormous rapidity. But Mr. Gannett shows that in the thirty years preceding 1860 it increased 48 per cent, and in the next thirty years not less than 68. In Louisiana the colored people are about one-half the population; in Mississippi and South Carolina, nearly three-fifths; in the coastwise States, from Virginia to Louisiana inclusive, over one-third each. It is declared that there has been a "perceptible southward movement of the colored race."

As to the Chinese, their immigration began in 1854, and averaged about 4,000 to 5,000 for fifteen years, when it became more rapid. Agitation produced the Exclusion Act of 1882, with the result that, while the census showed 104,168 Chinese here, that of 1890 showed 106,162, only a very slight increase. The Indians numbered 249,273 in 1890, with 216,706 living upon reservations, and more than a third of these were self-supporting and self-governing.

Of our total population at the last census, 9,249,547 were of foreign birth and 53,372,703 of native birth, including the colored races. The native whites numbered 45,862,023. It is interesting to note that the changes have been comparatively small in these proportions in the last thirty years. The native ratio in 1860 was 86.44, of which 73.46 was white; the foreign was 13.16. In 1890 the native ratio was 85.23, with 73.24 of it white, and the foreign was 14.77. Prior to 1860 the native ratio was larger, being 90.32, but the native white ratio is given as only 73.24, or precisely as at the last census.

Leading
Indus-
tries

The leading industry of the United States, if we consider the number of persons employed and supported by it, is agriculture; but if we consider the value of the product, it is manufactures, since the latter in 1890 exceeded \$4,000,000,000, while that of agriculture was only \$2,460,000,000. A very striking fact is that in 1880 the net product of manufactures was \$1,973,000,000, or less than that of

agriculture, which was \$2,213,000,000 at that time. The enormous gain and present status of manufactures certainly suggest their right to be heard as an element in the finance of the country. The value of farms in 1890 was \$13,276,000,000, an increase of 30 per cent. Farming tools and machinery brought the total capital up to \$13,770,000,000, which produced a return of \$2,460,000,000, or a little less than 18 per cent. The average size of farms decreased from 203 acres in 1850 to 134 acres in 1880, but in 1890 it increased to 137 acres.

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Tobacco is produced in forty-two States and Territories, but nearly half the whole crop comes from Kentucky. Virginia, Ohio, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Pennsylvania are also great producers, as, too, are Connecticut in proportion to its area, and Wisconsin, considering its latitude.

Produc-
tion of
Tobacco

Wheat is the most important of our cereal crops, and in the famous year 1891 the yield was 612,600,000 bushels, whereas India produced only 235,000,000; France, 231,000,000; Russia, 186,000,000; Hungary, 119,000,000; and Italy, 102,000,000. That year was also a great one for our corn, which reached 2,060,000,000 bushels, falling off about one-fifth the following year. Of oats, during that same prosperous year, the production reached 738,000,000 bushels. The rye crop is generally heavy, while barley and buckwheat come lower on the list.

Cotton, of course, is of great importance, the maximum yield, that of 1892, reaching 9,038,707 bales, Texas leading off in virtue of its area, while Georgia and Mississippi are enormous producers, with Alabama following. Hay is a product of vast value, that of 1888 amounting to 47,000,000 tons, valued at \$408,000,000; and mention must also be made of potatoes, of which the product in 1888 was 202,000,000 bushels, valued at \$81,000,000.

The total number of farm animals in 1892 was 169,100,000, valued at \$2,461,000,000. Horses led off, with 15,500,000 in number and \$1,008,000,000 in value. Cows numbered 16,400,000, with a value of \$570,000,000. The densest sheep population is in Ohio, averaging 109 to a square mile, or nearly three times as many for the area as any other State. Of hogs, Iowa has 127 to the square mile; Illinois, 85; Ohio, 69.

Value of
Farm
Animals

In about two-fifths of the area of the country, excluding Alaska, the rainfall is not adequate for agriculture, so that in eleven States

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Manu-
factures

and Territories irrigation is resorted to. The total area irrigated at the date given was 3,564,416 acres, or about one-half of one per cent of the total areas. In two States, Colorado and California, the irrigated area exceeded one per cent.

Manufactures have had a rapid development in this country. In 1850 the capital employed was \$533,000,000; the hands, 957,000; the wages, \$237,000,000; the material, \$555,000,000; the gross product, \$1,019,000,000; the net product, \$464,000,000. These figures fell somewhat short of doubling in 1860. However, in 1880 all of them had been more than quadrupled, except the number of hands, which was about tripled. For 1890, by making approximate calculations from partial statistics, Mr. Gannett reaches these vast figures: Capital, \$6,180,000,000, or nearly twelvefold that of 1850; hands employed, 4,665,000, or nearly fivefold, in spite of the introduction of labor-saving machinery; wages, \$2,000,000,000, or nearly ninefold, thus making the average wages far higher; gross product, \$9,400,000,000, or over ninefold; material, \$5,000,000,000, or ninefold; net product, \$4,400,000,000, or nearly tenfold. In ten years the South has made great strides in manufactures.

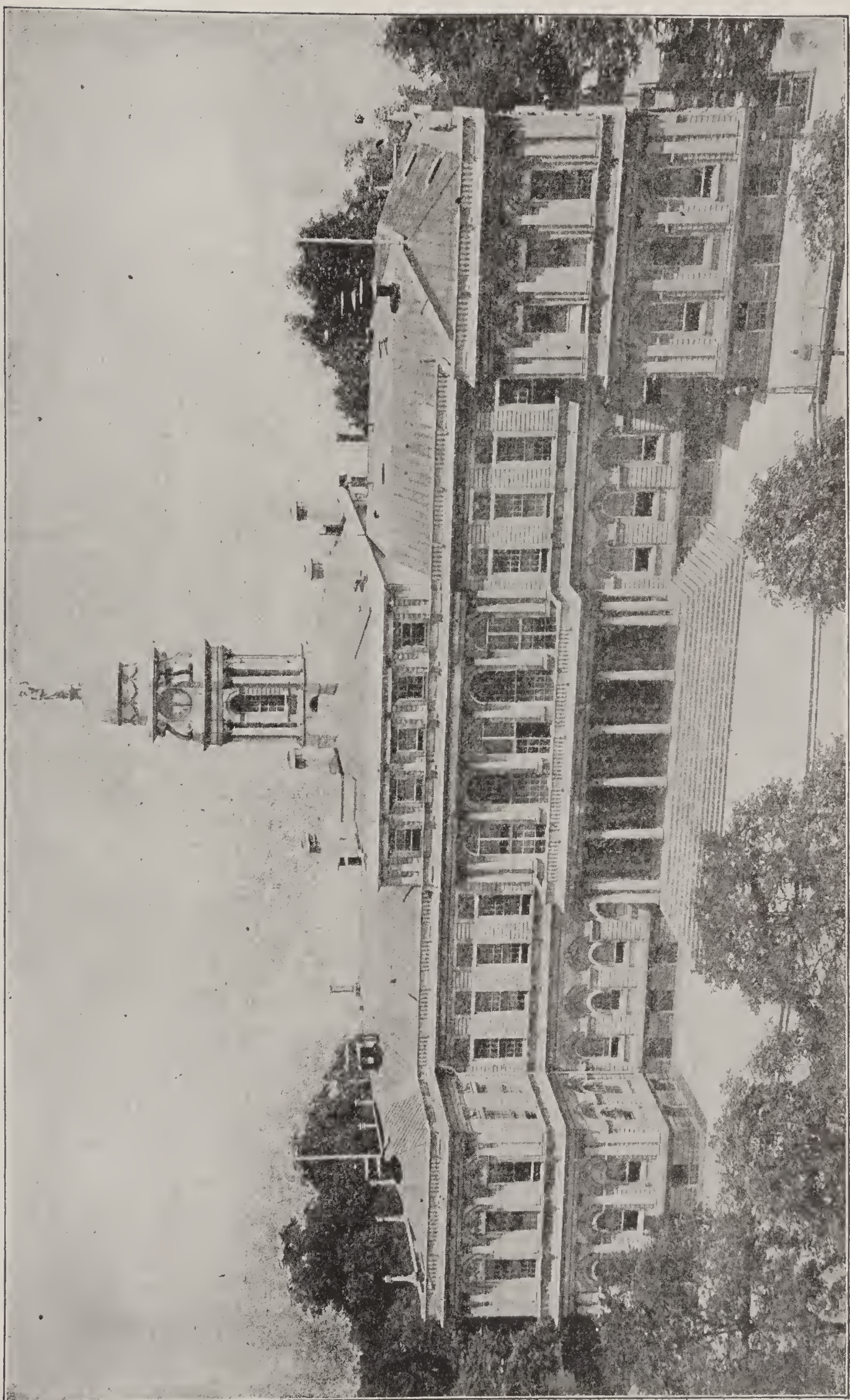
The average yearly wages of employees in 1850 were \$247; in 1890 they were \$429. The average capital invested in each establishment had also increased from \$4,000 to \$15,000. In 1850 the proportion of net product going to employees was 51, and to capital 49; in 1890 these proportions had become 45 and 55 respectively. But in 1850 the proportion of net product to capital was 87, and, minus wages, it was 43; whereas in 1890 these proportions had respectively diminished to 71 and 39.

New York is our greatest manufacturing centre, with over \$750,000,000 of products in 1890; then follow Chicago, with over \$600,000,000; then Philadelphia. After a long gap come Brooklyn, St. Louis, Boston, and then Cincinnati.

Steel
and Iron

Of steel we now produce one-fourth more than even Great Britain herself; and of iron in 1890 and the two years following we produced 12 per cent. more. On June 30, 1890, we had 562 blast furnaces, 224 of them in Pennsylvania, and also 158 steel works, about half in Pennsylvania.

Of cotton factories we had 904 in 1890, with \$354,000,000 capital, employing 221,585 hands, or an increase of 27 per cent over 1880, and earning \$66,000,000 in wages, an increase of 57 per cent.



CITY HALL, NEW YORK

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The product had risen to \$268,000,000, an increase, in ten years, of 40 per cent. New England carries on 63 per cent of the cotton manufactures.

Woollen factories had in 1890 fallen off in numbers from 1880, but they had increased their capital invested from \$159,000,000 to \$297,000,000, their gross product to \$338,000,000, and their wages from \$47,000,000 to \$66,000,000, or 62 per cent, although the net product, owing to the increased cost of raw material, had scarcely increased at all.

There were 18,536 periodicals of all classes published in 1891. In the same year were produced 44,316,804 gallons of whiskey, 12,260,821 of alcohol, 24,306,905 of wines, 1,784,312 of rum, 1,223,775 of fruit brandy, and 30,021,079 barrels of beer.

Our mineral product for 1891 is put at \$668,524,537, an enormous total. It included \$117,106,483 in bituminous coal; \$128,337,985 in pig iron; Pennsylvania anthracite, \$73,943,735; building stone, \$47,294,746; silver, at coining value, \$75,416,565; gold, \$33,175,000; copper, value at New York, \$38,455,300; lime, \$35,000,000; petroleum, \$32,575,188; natural gas, \$18,000,000; lead, \$17,609,322; while zinc, cement, salt, phosphate rock, mineral waters, and quicksilver add to the amount. We produce a third of the world's coal and one-fourth of its iron, Great Britain alone exceeding us. We produce one-third of the world's steel, surpassing her. We produced in 1890 about 28 per cent. of the world's gold, and used to produce more, the yield in 1853 being \$65,000,000. We produce two-fifths of the world's copper, and by far the greatest part of its petroleum. As to transportation, our railways have a greater mileage than those of all Europe combined.

Wonders
of the
Future

No student of American history can fail to glance ahead and wonder what the future has in store for us. Had any person at the close of the Revolution foretold our growth of territory and population, our inventions, discoveries, and progress, he would have been set down as extremely optimistic, if not visionary, and not a tenth of his prophecy would have been believed. So it is a wild venture to speculate about what shall be a hundred or even fifty years in advance. The art of navigating in the air, the substitution of electricity as the universal motor, the doubling and tripling of speed by railways and steamboats, absolute safety against fire, a specific for every disease (excepting old age), and the consequent lengthening of

human life, the perfection of engines of war to such a degree of awful destructiveness that war shall become impossible, a greater knowledge of the mysterious worlds around us, a deeper penetration of nature's secrets—all these and many more may be set down as among the certainties of the future, and many a boy and girl now reading these pages will perhaps live to see their fulfilment.

The number of States to-day is forty-five. At no distant day there will be a hundred, and our population will reach a billion.

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MORMON TEMPLE, SALT LAKE CITY

As an indication of what is soon to come, a description is here given of an amazing but practical scheme already put forward by the irrigation experts of the West. Millions of acres have been wrested from the desert and developed during late years by means of artificial irrigation. It may be said, indeed, that most of the country between the Missouri River and the Sierras has been thus reclaimed. The deserts of sand and sage-brush in Colorado, Utah, New Mexico, Arizona, Southern California, and other Western States have thus been transformed into fruitful orchards and productive farming lands. The change is so marvellous as to prove that irrigation is the one and only key that is to unlock the real wealth of the greater part of the West.

Possibil-
ities of
Irriga-
tion

Thus far, however, irrigation has been carried on in a primitive

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TODifficul-
ties of
the
Question

way, in which as much water has been wasted as has been utilized, and being in the hands of private persons, later comers have been deprived of their water rights or compelled to pay therefor an extortionate price.

It is self-evident that the question of irrigation must be considered in the interests of the people as a whole. The main trouble is that vast areas of the best irrigable lands in one State depend for their natural water supply on rivers that rise and run for most of their length in another State, which if it chooses can cut off the water supply and use or waste it all on its own territory. Something of this nature has already occurred, giving rise to serious disputes between the States. Kansas asks whether her agriculture is to be destroyed in favor of Colorado's settlers, and Colorado replies by reversing the question, while Idaho and Utah, Utah and Nevada, and Nevada and California are wrangling over the same matter.

It will be seen that the real trouble arises from the relations of the watersheds of these States. In the eastern half of our country natural boundaries, such as mountains and rivers, were largely used, but in the western half the state divisions are almost wholly on the lines of latitude and longitude. Some of the results are amusing. Thus in Arizona, people living north of the Grand Cañon can reach their capital only by travelling several hundred miles out of the direct way and going through other States, for the Cañon can be passed only at one point for five hundred miles of its length. The Rocky Mountains cut into parts and isolate Montana, Colorado, and Wyoming. The Cascade Range divides Washington and Oregon into sections having no interests in common. Ingenious malignity could not have made the various boundary lines more absurd, illogical, and mutually injurious.

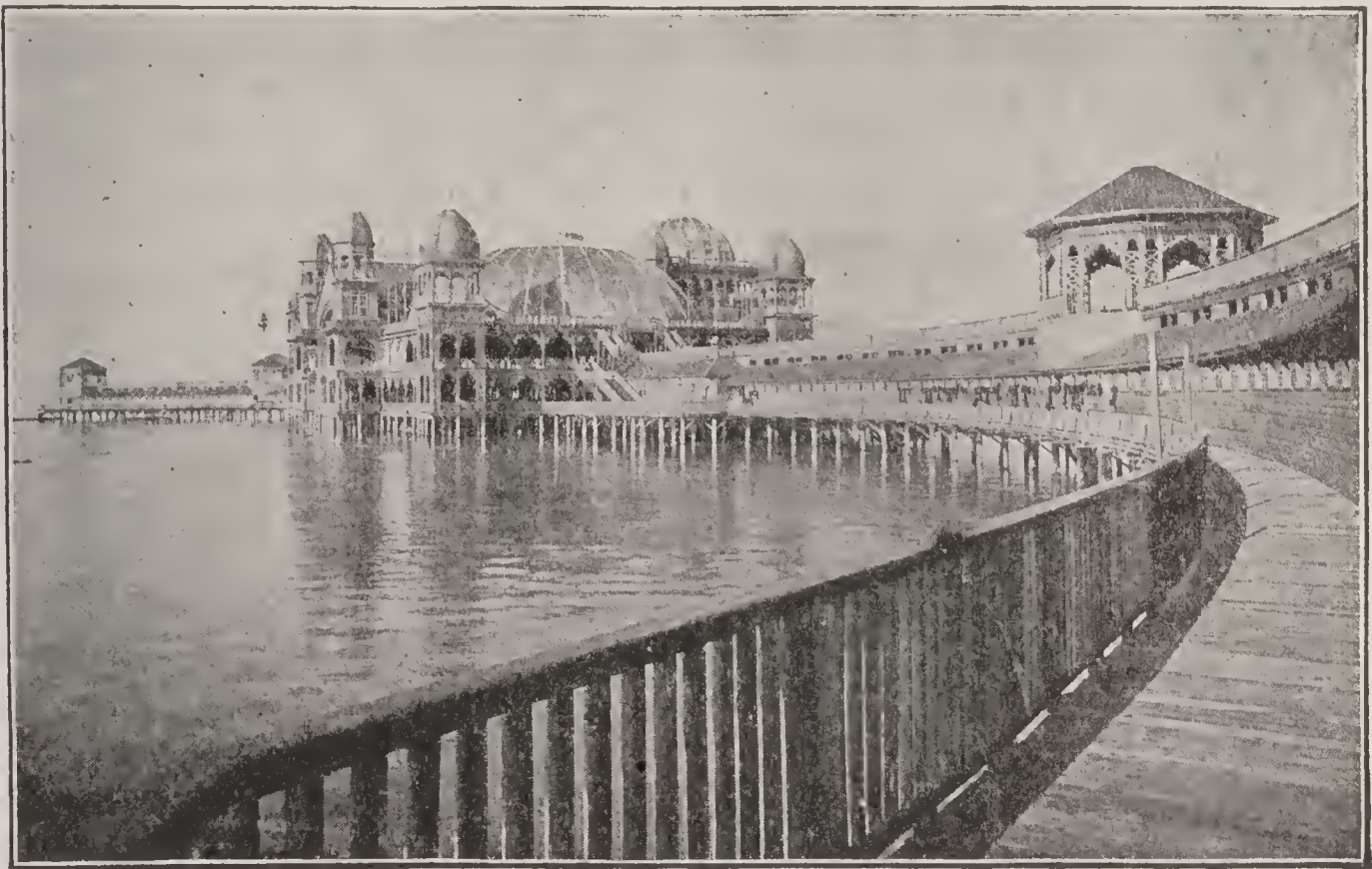
New
System
Proposed

The irrigation people ask that the States shall be mapped out on the basis of topography, and that their territory shall be founded on undivided water systems or drainage. As bounded now, every river of account in the irrigation country flows through two or more States or Territories. The water systems of the entire arid region are crossed and recrossed by State lines. As an illustration, the Bear River rises in Utah, flows north into Wyoming, turns west into Utah again, then back into Wyoming, crosses into Idaho, and finally returns to the State of its birth, and empties into Great Salt Lake.

The endless disputes and complications, and the great interests

involved, have led to the proposal to wipe out all the present State and territorial lines, and make a new division of the arid and sub-humid West and Southwest into States with boundaries in accord with the natural contour of the country, and with special reference to the needs of irrigation. Of the different schemes proposed, the most noteworthy is that of Orren M. Donaldson, in *The Irrigation Age*. He admits the impossibility of including the largest rivers each in one irrigation district or in one State. But with the excep-

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LAKE FRONT. SALT-AIR BEACH SALT LAKE

tion of the Missouri, Rio Grande, Colorado, Columbia, and Shoshone, and of two smaller rivers, no stream in all the irrigation country would, under this proposed partition, flow from one political division into another. Every river would have its entire course through the arid region within the limits of one State or Territory. The inter-State division of the five large rivers named Mr. Donaldson thinks could be arranged without difficulty.

What a striking difference this partition would make in the map of the United States! It would give twenty-six States and Territories in place of the eighteen that now make up the Western half of the country, "thus securing to the West its equal influence with the East in national affairs, to which its equal population will give it full title in the not-distant future." Mr. Donaldson estimates the

Effect on
our Maps

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Peculiar
State
Bounda-
ries

average population of the new political divisions at 380,000, and the average size 73,500 square miles. The map, which is reproduced on another page, is from material kindly furnished by *The Irrigation Age*, and fully tells the interesting story.

It is appropriate in this place to direct attention to the peculiarities of other State and territorial boundaries. If the new Alaskan boundary is accepted, it will form one of the longest of the numerous straight boundaries between one country and its neighbors, for it will be a meridian of about 600 miles. The only longer stretch of straight boundary between this country and another is the parallel extending along our Canadian frontier westward from the Lake of the Woods to Puget Sound, forming the longest straight boundary line in the world. The longest similar boundary line wholly within the United States is the parallel which runs westward from the southeastern corner of Kansas to the southwestern corner of Utah, and separating Kansas, Colorado, and Utah on the north from Indian Territory, Oklahoma, New Mexico, and Arizona on the south. This line is nearly 1,100 miles in length, or about 400 miles longer than any other straight boundary wholly within the United States. The next longest is the parallel separating Idaho and Oregon on the north from Utah, Nevada, and California on the south. It is about 700 miles long. The longest straight boundary line between two States is that running southeast from Lake Tahoe to the Colorado River, between California and Nevada. It is 400 miles long, and has recently been surveyed and marked at frequent intervals with boundary stones.

Lengthy
Bound-
ary
Lines

There is only one very long straight boundary line east of the Mississippi, the parallel running west from the northwestern border of South Carolina to that river, and separating North Carolina and Tennessee on the north from Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi on the south. It is nearly 500 miles long. Carelessly drawn maps seem to indicate a considerably longer straight line between Virginia and Kentucky on the north, North Carolina and Tennessee on the south. But this line is not throughout its length a single parallel. It has several kinks, each with a more or less interesting diplomatic history. There are half a dozen other straight boundary lines east of the Mississippi from 150 to 250 miles in length. New York's southern boundary is one of these.

The most famous boundary between any two States of the Union,

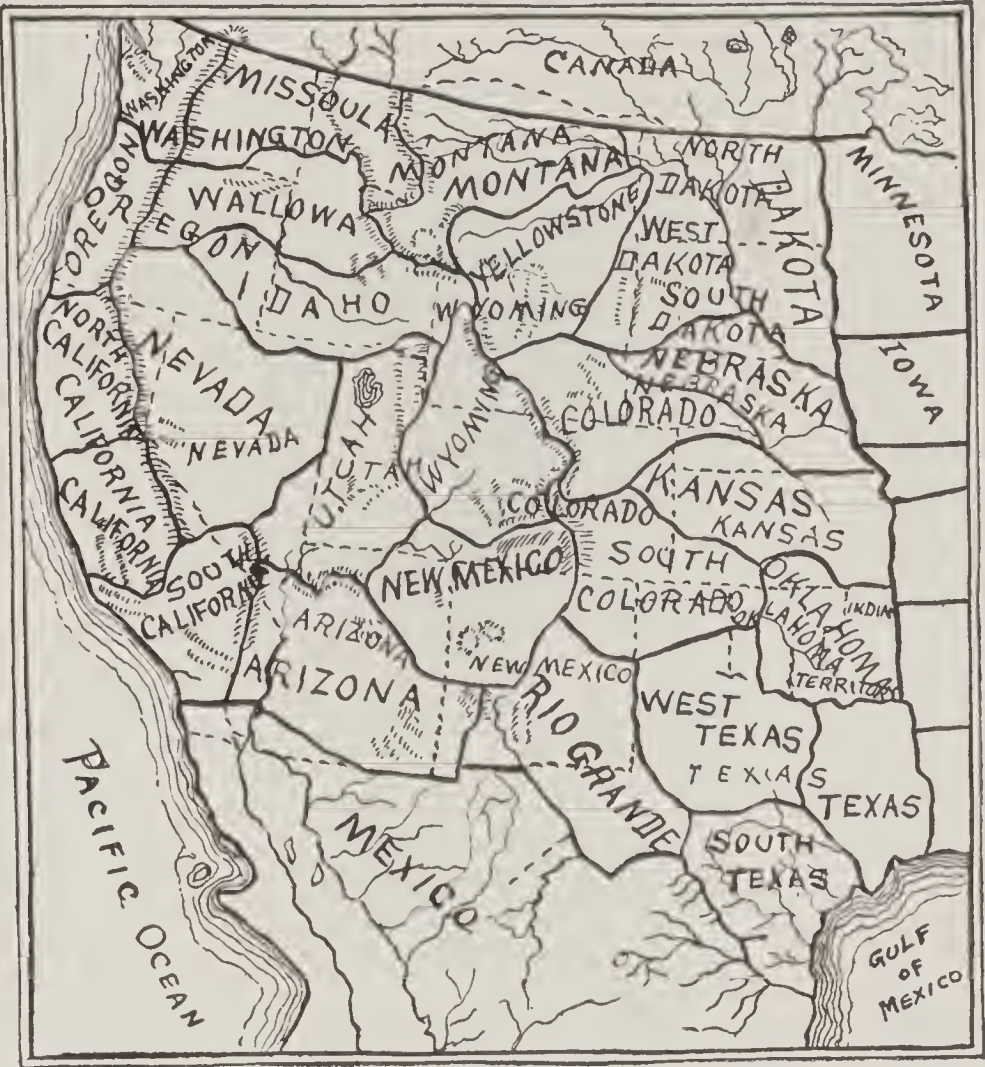
and, all things considered, one of the most notable in the world, is the parallel, about 275 miles in length, between Pennsylvania on the north and Maryland and West Virginia on the south. It is, for the greater part of its length, the Mason and Dixon's line of history, first famous as commemorating a quarrel between the Penns and the Cecils, dating back more than two hundred years, and having its origin even earlier, and later even more famous as expressing the popular conception of the boundary between the slave States and the free States. Not even our long-disputed Northwestern boundary has been so much in men's mouths as Mason and Dixon's line.

It is entirely probable that the survey of this early line set the precedent for boundaries by parallels and

meridians, for although British kings had before, in their large-handed way, made grants in the New World from parallel to parallel, Mason and Dixon's line was about the earliest long boundary to be carefully surveyed. The first complete survey of the line dates to about 1767, though attempts had been made at it some years earlier, and the western boundary of Delaware, which is to all intents and purposes part of the same line, had been surveyed with rare accuracy for that period.

The only States or Territories bounded wholly by meridians and parallels are Wyoming, Colorado, and Utah, and only the first two are true rectangles. Indeed, perhaps properly speaking, only Colorado is, since the Yellowstone Park occupies the northwestern corner

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MAP SHOWING PRESENT BOUNDARIES IN DOTTED LINES. PROPOSED NEW ONES IN BLACK LINES

Early
Surveys

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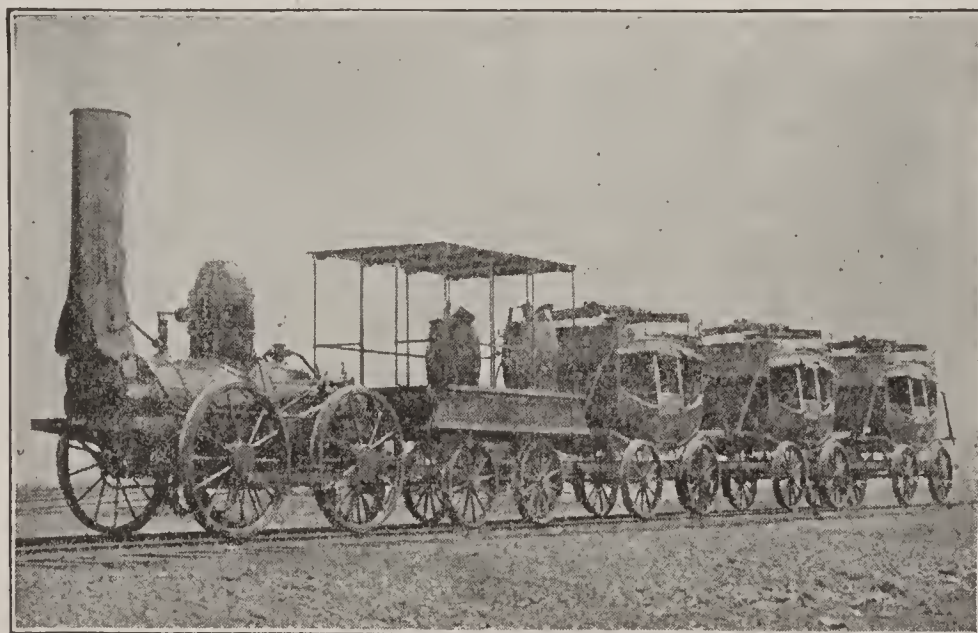
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of Montana. New Mexico narrowly escaped a boundary solely by parallels and meridians by the interposition of the Rio Grande for a few miles on the south.

West Virginia has the most irregular boundary of any State, and is almost entirely defined by natural lines, rivers, and moun-

tain ranges. New Jersey has natural boundaries, save for an imaginary straight line of some miles between her and New York.

Michigan is the only State composed of two parts wholly sundered by a large body



EARLY LOCOMOTIVE, THE "DEWITT CLINTON" (1831)

of water. If a pending suit of Maryland against West Virginia shall be decided in favor of the former, the latter will be sundered into two parts, separated by intervening territory of another State, the only instance of the kind in the Union. This boundary dispute is almost as old as the historic quarrel over Mason and Dixon's line.

A Proud
Birth-
right

No American, we repeat, can look upon the marvellous growth and progress of his country in territory, population, wealth, science, literature, education, invention, art, and all that makes a nation truly great, without a thrill of gratitude and a pride in his birthright; but it is wise in reflecting upon all this to remember that where there is so much prosperity and such ground for hope, there is also cause for fear. Such blessings bring their responsibilities, and the history of more than one people of the past proves that nations, like men, when they seem to be full of vigor and life, may be already smitten with death. The promises of the future cannot be realized if we fall short of our duty. There have been crucial periods in the past, when our country tottered on the verge of destruction, and doubtless such crises will confront us in the future.

The most pressing duty is that of a more general, intelligent, and conscientious study of and interest in politics. It is too much the case that politics is left to the ignorant and corrupt members of so-

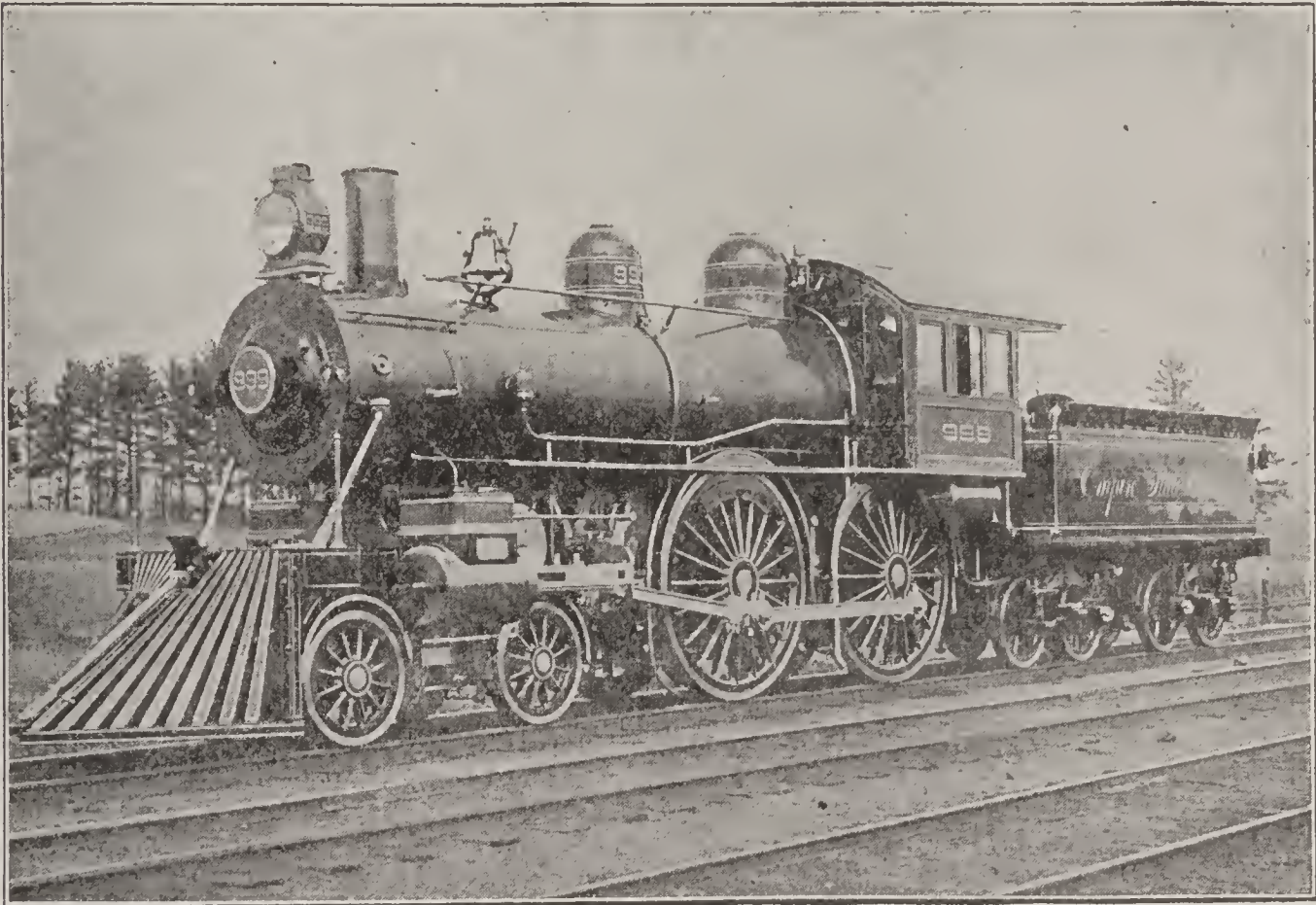
ciety. Good men shrink from tainting themselves, as they regard it, in the unclean waters; and yet by no other means can they be purified, and by no other process can the wrong-doers be rendered powerless to injure their fellowmen by corruption and unjust laws.

The study of the Constitution should begin in all schools as soon as the pupil has the mental capacity to understand the provisions of that wonderful instrument. The history of the United States should be familiar to every boy and girl, and not only the achievements but the mistakes of the past made clear.

PERIOD VII

THE NEW
UNITED
STATES
1865
TO

Our
Duties



Coypright 1893, by A. P. Yates

EMPIRE STATE EXPRESS, No. 999 (1897)

Among the most manifest dangers that threaten our country are those that result from indiscriminate immigration. With the thousands that come to this favored land are hundreds of the worst miscreants of the Old World. From their ranks are recruited the anarchists, the members of the Mafia, and the deadliest enemies of society. The problem of how to winnow the chaff from the wheat, of how to exclude the vicious while welcoming the worthy, is one that has long engaged thoughtful minds and that is still unsolved.

A graver and farther-reaching peril is the effort of the demagogue to array capital against labor, to incite the hatred of the poor against

Our
Dangers

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the rich, and, by leading men astray by fantastic theories of government, to strike at the foundations of law, order, and the security of home and of life itself. The growth of wealth to enormous proportions among a few, with its influence upon legislation, is another cause for alarm. All this, however, and much more bring us back to the truth already stated, that the remedy for these dangers lies in the cultivation of the minds and hearts of our children, that they grow up with their sense of right clarified and duty made the mainspring of all their actions.

Still another menace to our civilization is the disregard of law in many sections. When law becomes inoperative and crime rampant, as was the case in California and other Western States during their early days, self-protection demands the formation of vigilance committees, and lynching is justifiable; but when law resumes its sway, lynching, which seeks to punish crime, is itself among the gravest of crimes. There may be palliation for some of the lynchings of negroes in the South, for many thus punished have richly deserved it, but the law itself is sufficient to reach and punish them, and the woful truth is undeniable that more than one innocent victim has suffered torture and death. Better, indeed, is it that a hundred guilty should go unpunished than that one innocent person should be wronged.

Miscar-
riages of
Justice

The frequent miscarriage of justice is a reproach to us. The investigation of the Star Route frauds, as they were called, established the guilt of more than one prominent man, and yet not one of them was punished. During the draft riots of 1863 in New York city, some of the miscreants were guilty of atrocities that were never surpassed by Apaches, yet none of them suffered therefor. Indeed, one miserable wretch had a street named in his honor, and the motion was repeatedly made in common council to repeat the honor with another street. The writer once had a conversation with a man in Austin, Tex., who gave him the names of twenty-odd persons whom he had killed. In more than one instance there was not the slightest justification on the part of this murderer, and yet he was never called to account. When he returned home from one of his killings in San Antonio, where he was detained during the formal investigation, the crowd took the horses from his carriage and drew him in triumph through the principal streets of the state capital.

Where the law is operative it often loses its restraining force

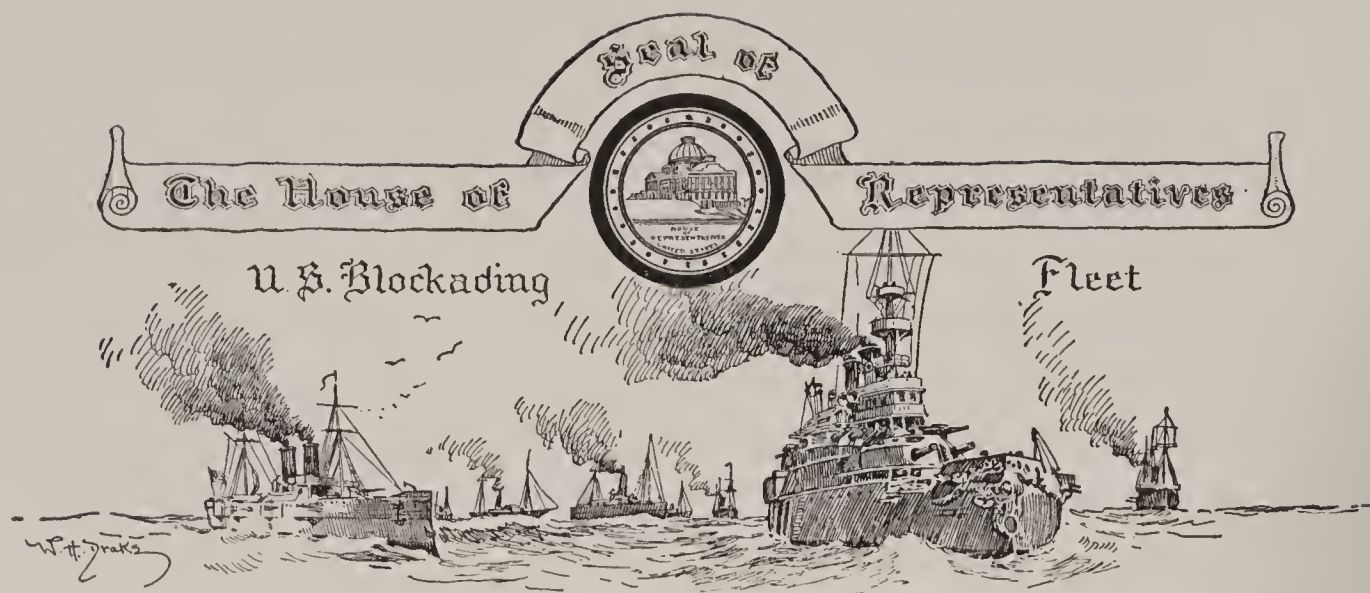
through delay. A burly negro in New Jersey murdered his wife most brutally, confessed it, and announced himself ready to be hanged; yet his lawyer, by legal tricks and devices, postponed his execution for two years. In numberless cases, where swift punishment would have taught its salutary lesson, the delay has so wearied the prosecution that the criminal has been allowed to go free, with some of the jurors who convicted him joining in the petition for pardon. Little wonder is it that, when public sentiment becomes so callous, one State out of our forty-five has had the hardihood to legalize prize-fighting within its borders.

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TO

It is such facts as these that call for serious thought and demand the right education of the rising generation, in order that our country, the greatest of republics and the hope of mankind, shall fulfil the destiny that awaits it if her sons and daughters, in their preparation for the work of manhood and womanhood, meet the requirements of our civilization.





PERIOD VIII—OUR COLONIAL EXPANSION

CHAPTER XCVIII

McKINLEY'S ADMINISTRATION—1897-1901 (Continued)

OUR WAR WITH SPAIN

Causes of the War

[*Authorities:* The thought of any country playing the part of the Good Samaritan among other nations is to most people Utopian to the degree of absurdity. Nations are utterly selfish, and the accepted idea of patriotism is that of necessity it is limited by the boundaries of one's own country. The reign of the universal brotherhood of man is still remote, and wars and rumors of wars will fret the world for many years to come. But that there is an unselfish and a profoundly sympathetic spirit on the part at least of one nation is proven by the intervention, followed by the sacrifices, sufferings, and hundreds of deaths of brave Americans in behalf of crushed and bleeding Cuba. Whether such intervention is of itself the herald of the day of general peace, or the signal of the entrance of the United States upon a grand career of colonial expansion similar to that of Great Britain, is a question whose answer lies in the near future. All the incidents bearing upon this momentous subject are fully set forth in the following pages, the authorities for which are portions of the diplomatic correspondence of our Government, the official reports from the field of operations, and the newspaper accounts from the front. The work of the newspaper correspondents has been a feature of the war, and a striking testimony to the enterprise of American journalism.]



SINCE the troubles in Cuba as given in Chapter XCIV of this history, we have had our war with Spain, a full account of which will be found in the chapters that follow. The period is so important in our history that in order to comprehend it clearly it is proper that we should begin at the beginning, even at the risk of a partial repetition of some of the opening incidents.

It was on the 28th of October, 1492, that Christopher Columbus, while cruising westward among the West Indian islands, entered the

mouth of a river which led into the interior of the beautiful and fertile land that the natives called Cuba. Throughout his discoveries, the great navigator believed he had reached the eastern shore of India, and he died in ignorance of the grandeur of the vast continent that lay just beyond.

Cuba, with its length of 760 miles, and a varying breadth of 28 to 127 miles, has an area of 41,655 square miles, nearly equal to that of the State of New York. Its soil is of inexhaustible fertility, and

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AVENUE OF COCOANUT PALMS

its climate, except during the rainy season—from April to October—is mild and delightful. The mountains, which extend from one end of the island to the other, are highest in the eastern portion, where they are broken into spurs and transverse ridges. The most elevated peak, that of Tarquino, is nearly 8,000 feet above the sea.*

Natural
Features
of
Cuba

More than one-half of the island has never been brought under cultivation and is still covered with primeval forests. During the rainy season the lowlands of the coast are inundated, and in the

* The island of Cuba was successively called Juan, Fernandina, Santiago, and Ave Maria, by its Spanish explorers and early settlers, but none of these appellations permanently supplanted the old Indian name (Cuba, the place of gold) which it now bears.



A COCOANUT TREE IN CUBA

swamps the black mud becomes like glue. Add to this feature the leagues of dense forest, choked with wire-like vines and undergrowth, with roads that are mere bridle-paths, and with the mosquitoes and other insects an unbearable pest, while through and over all broods a smothering, fever-laden atmosphere, like the breath of a furnace, surcharged with pestilential mists, and some idea may be formed of what our brave men faced during the Santiago campaign, waged in a very difficult district at the worst season of the year.

Cuban tobacco and sugar have long been famous throughout the world. There may be some spot elsewhere that will grow as fine tobacco as the Vuelta Abajo district in Cuba, but as yet it has not been discovered. The wool of the merino sheep becomes coarse when the animal is removed to other regions where the climatic conditions are similar, and the Cuban tobacco, when transplanted for even so short a distance as to Key West, soon deteriorates.

The ingenios or sugar plantations, have always been the most important industrial establishments on the island. While the increasing competition of beet-sugar has reduced the sales of Cuban cane-sugar, it has never been able to displace it in foreign markets. Before the war the average value of the sugar exported was \$50,000,000 and of molasses \$9,000,000, which, with good government and enterprise, could be increased five-fold.

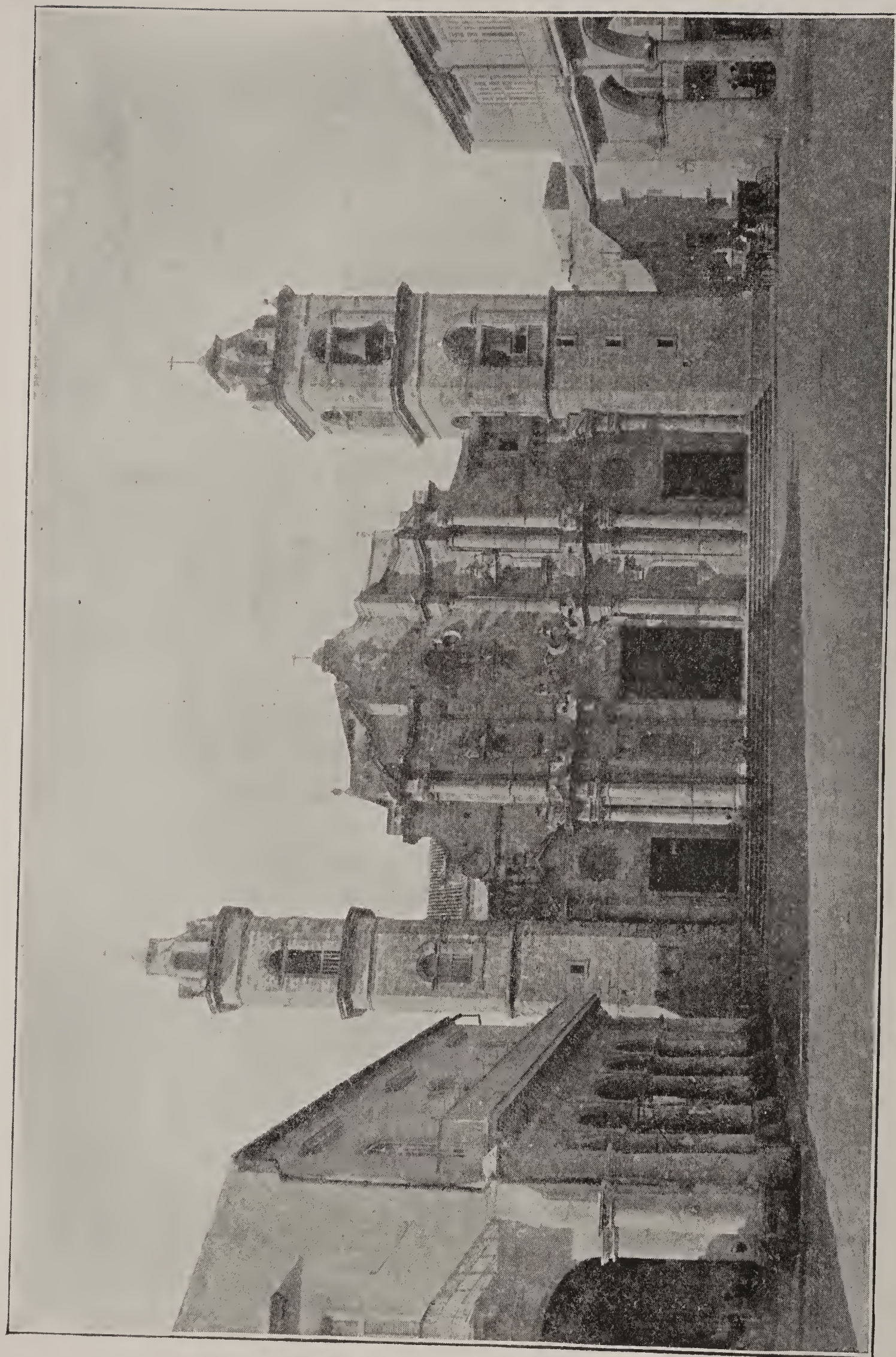
Despite the enormous value of the tobacco industry, the intolerable exactions of Spain, which controls it as a monopoly, have greatly crippled the production. Like every possible source of revenue, it has been made to contribute to the insatiate greed of the Spanish officials, whose rapacity has strangled many a legitimate enterprise. The Cuban tobacco crop in 1895 was worth about \$10,000,000.

Scattered throughout the island are the cafetals, or coffee estates; but although this crop once ranked next in value to that of sugar, it has been greatly reduced by the production of Brazil.

Several species of beautiful and luxuriant palms are found, chief among which is the Royal palm, whose height often exceeds a hundred feet. The wild cocoanut-palm is strained to sustain its exuberant fruit and leaves, and oranges are so abundant that at times no one troubles himself to gather them. A traveller declared that at certain seasons on some of the vast estates they "lie all about on the bright red earth, little naked negroes kicking aside and satiated pigs disdainfully neglecting the luscious fruit which the north would have

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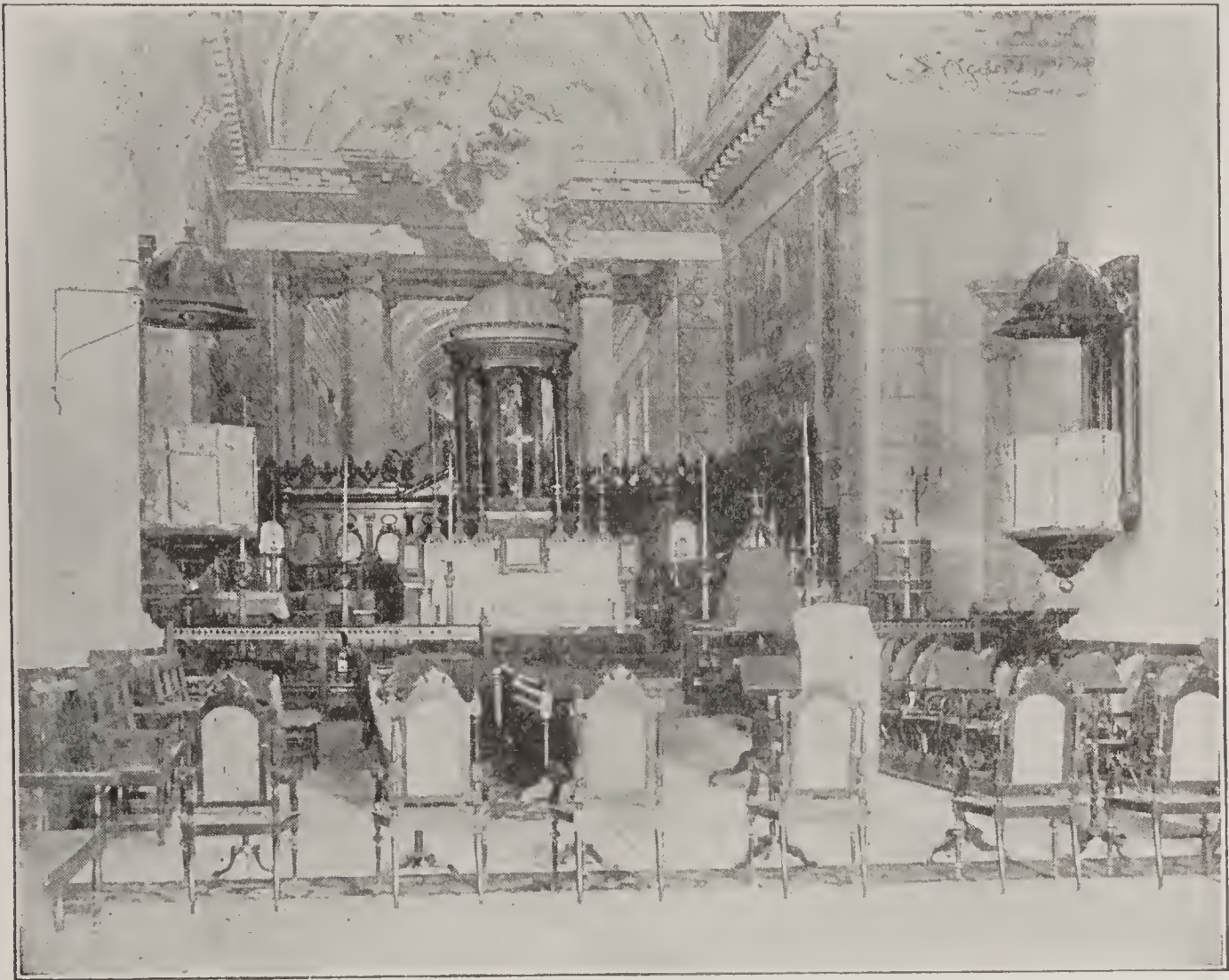
Species
of
Palms



THE CATHEDRAL, HAVANA

piled with great pride upon salvers of silver and porcelain.” The clustering bunches of bananas are cut from the tree while green, and

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THE CATHEDRAL, HAVANA (INTERIOR)

are left to ripen on their way to or after their arrival at the foreign markets.

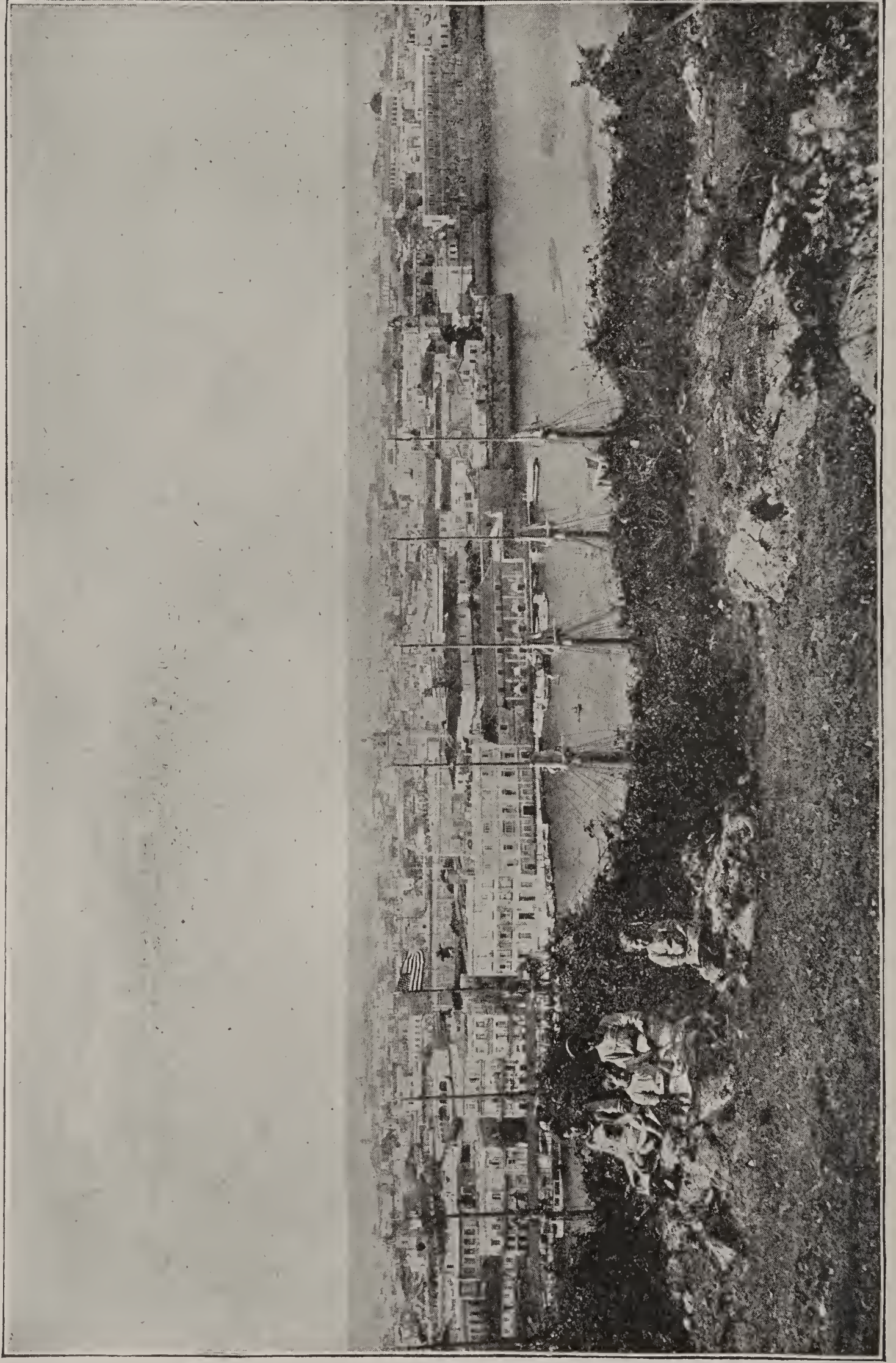
The last census of Cuba, taken in 1887, was as follows :

Provinces.	White.	Colored.	Total.
Havana	344,417	107,511	451,928
Pinar del Rio.....	167,160	58,731	225,891
Matanzas.....	143,169	116,401	259,570
Santa Clara.....	244,345	109,777	354,122
Puerto Principe	54,232	13,557	67,789
Santiago de Cuba	157,980	114,339	272,319
Total,*	1,111,303	520,316	1,631,619

The
Popula-
tion

The Roman Catholic religion is the only one recognized by the Spanish Government. Education has been greatly neglected. In

* Of the 1,631,619 inhabitants, one-fifth were natives of Spain, 10,500 were whites of foreign blood, 485,187 were negroes, about 50,000 Chinese, and the remainder native Cubans. The last slaves in Cuba were liberated by a royal decree of 1886.



HAVANA, CUBA (FROM ACROSS THE BAY)

1883 there were 568 public and 267 private primary schools, but of these 67 were entirely vacant. Salaries were withheld from the teachers of many of the public schools, and the general condition of the island's educational system was very poor. Thousands of people in the interior live like the beasts of the field. Indeed, the whole island has been treated by Spain as simply one of the means of enriching her corrupt officials, and her greed has prevented her from garnering a quarter of the harvests that simple justice and the most ordinary enterprise would have brought to her.

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A Mis-
governed
Country

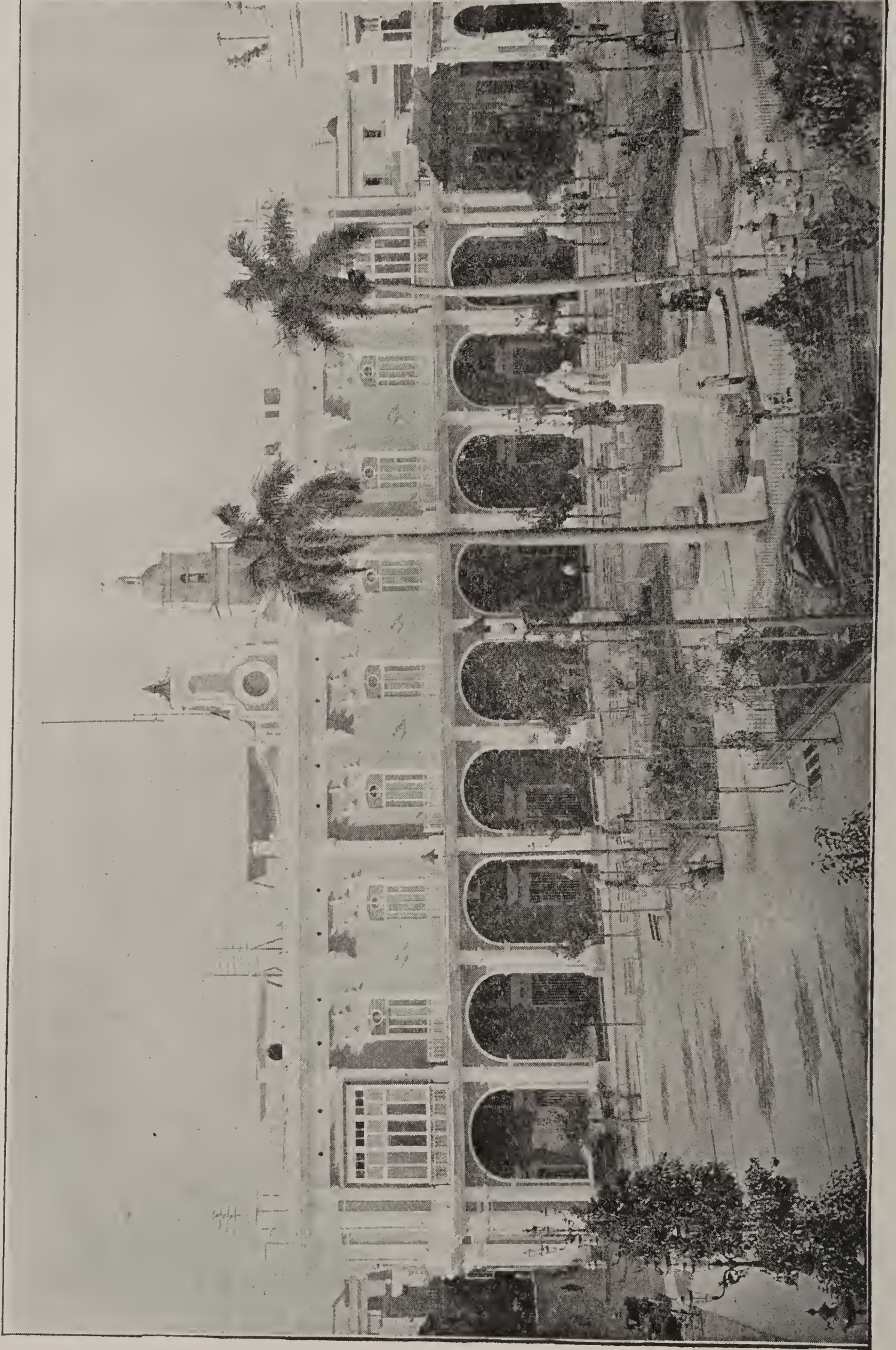
Havana is the metropolis of Cuba, and the largest city in the West Indies. With a population of nearly a quarter of a million, it has long been the leading tobacco and sugar market of the world. It was founded in 1519, and has an excellent harbor. The old city lies within the walls, and the new towns are outside, containing many beautiful suburbs, promenades, and public parks. Havana is strongly built, most of the buildings being of stone, the streets paved with granite or other hard stone. It has been graphically described by Murat Halstead as being a city of palaces fronting on alleys, some of the principal thoroughfares, including the sidewalks, being no more than twenty-five feet wide. Like all Spanish cities, its uncleanliness is a continual invitation for the entrance of disease and pestilence. Many of the inhabitants are wealthy. Morro Castle, the ancient fortress at the entrance to the harbor, has served as the tomb of scores of political offenders, among whom has been more than one American. Although regarded as a formidable defence for the harbor, the Spaniards' main reliance has been the fortifications erected later on the neighboring hills, a short distance from the sea-front.

The second city is Santiago de Cuba, on the southern coast, and the scene of the brilliant operations of our fleet and army in July, 1898. Its population in 1892 was 71,307, that of Matanzas at the same time being 56,379, of Puerto Principe 46,641, and of Cienfuegos 40,964.

The
Leading
Cities

Before the recent war, Cuba had a thousand miles of railroad, exclusive of a number of private lines connecting with the large plantations. Two thousand vessels with a tonnage of two and a half millions entered in 1894 the five principal ports, Havana, Santiago, Cienfuegos, Trinidad, and Nuevitas.

The rule of Spain in Cuba has scarcely a parallel in history for



GOVERNOR-GENERAL'S PALACE, HAVANA

treachery and cruelty. Since October, 1896, three-quarters of a million of peaceful country people, mainly old men, women, and children, have been driven from their homes, which were burned, and herded in the towns and cities, where half of them have starved to death.*

A few historical incidents will vividly illustrate Spanish rule in Cuba. The ten years' struggle in the island began soon after the

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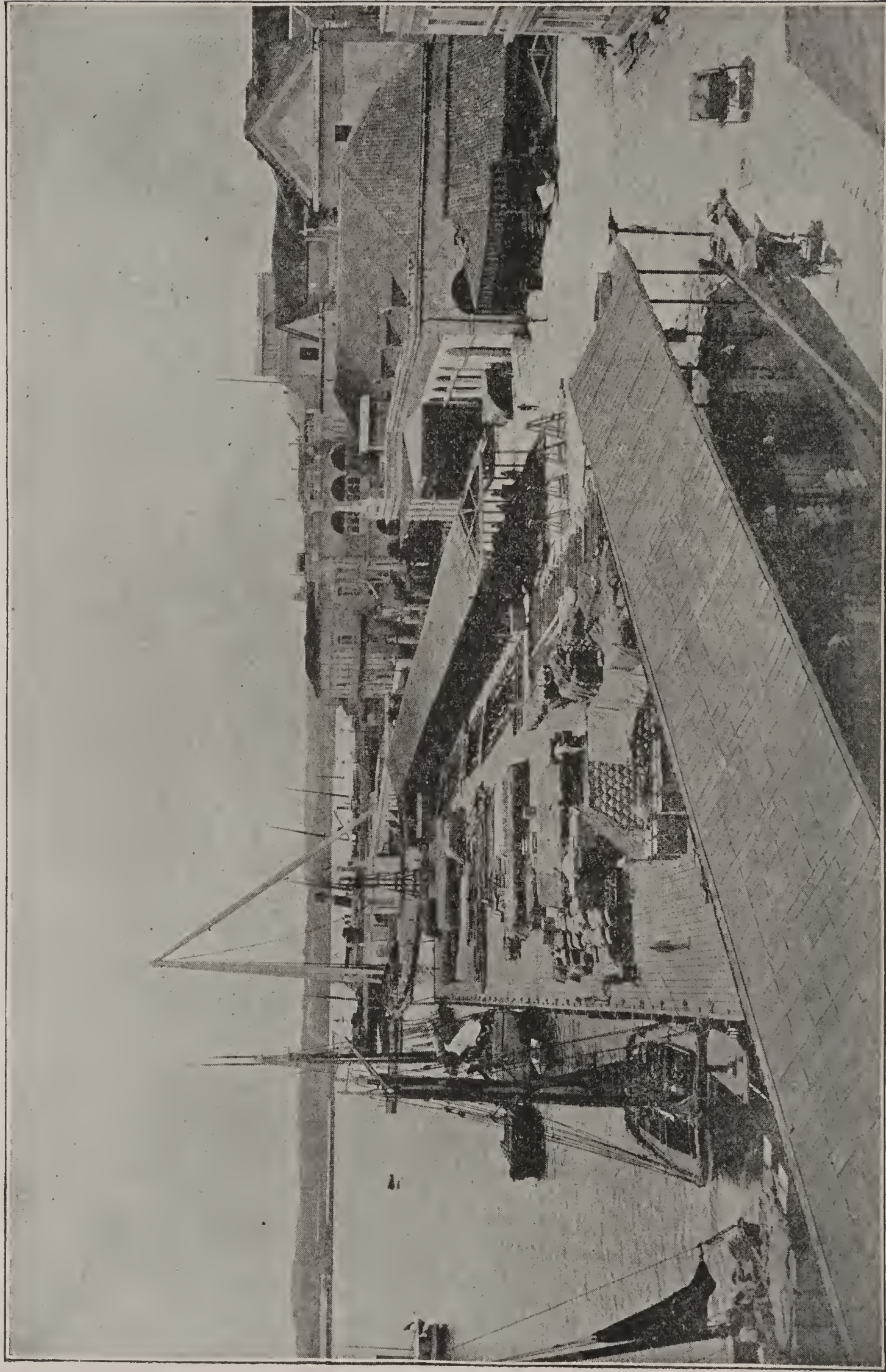


A COUNTRY VILLA, CUBA

close of our Civil War (1868). The powerful militia organization in Havana, composed of Spanish loyalists, is known as the Cuban Volunteers. The tomb of one of their number had been defaced, and the students of the Havana University were under suspicion. Complaint was made, and forty-three were placed on trial and acquitted. The Volunteers induced the Governor-general to order retrial before a jury, two-thirds of whom were Volunteers. This arrangement inevitably secured a conviction, and on November 27, 1871, eight of

Spain's
Brutality

* Chaseajaba, in July, 1897, contained two hundred and fifty "reconcentrados." Three months later, two adults and three children were all that were left. In December of the same year, one-ninth of the reconcentrados in Matanzas died. This mortality increased with appalling swiftness on the approach of the rainy season. Clara Barton, leader of the Red Cross Society, declared that the famine in Cuba was a thousand times worse than that which had prevailed in India, Armenia, or anywhere else.



Copyright 1898, by Karl Decker

THE HARBOR OF HAVANA

the students were shot by a large force of Volunteers assembled for that purpose.

In 1873, the American steamer *Virginius* was cruising in the Caribbean Sea. Appearing off the Cuban coast, she was pursued and captured by the Spanish cruiser *Tornado*, on November 1, and taken into Santiago as a pirate. Fifty-three of the *Virginius* party, including Capt. Joseph Fry, were executed, their bodies trampled on by

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THE TACON MARKET (SOUTH SIDE), HAVANA

horses and their heads displayed on pikes. An American newspaper correspondent who attempted to sketch the scene was punished with imprisonment.

The massacre would have continued had not the British warship *Niobe*, under Sir Hampton Lorraine, hastened from Kingston, Jamaica, to Santiago, and threatened to bombard the city unless the murders were instantly stopped. Spain receded before the indignation of the United States, surrendered the *Virginius* with the remainder of her passengers, and paid indemnities to the families of the American victims.

The
“*Virgin-
ius*”
Affair

In 1877, the *Ellen Rispah*, the *Rising Sun*, and the *Edward Lee*, all sailing under the American flag, and outside of Cuban waters, were fired upon by a Spanish warship, and detained for days, with

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the result that the owners recovered an indemnity of \$10,000 from Spain.

Among numerous other outrages, one of the most tragic was the death of Dr. Ricardo Ruiz, an American dentist. He was arrested in Havana, in February, 1897, under the charge of sympathizing



THE CIVIL GOVERNOR'S RESIDENCE, HAVANA

with the rebels. He was confined in a foul cell, and no counsel or member of his family was permitted to see him for a period of two weeks. The demands of Consul-General Lee for information regarding him were ignored, and on the fourteenth day of his confine-

ment he was found dead in his cell. There is scarcely a doubt that he had been tortured to death in the vain attempt to obtain a confession.*

Returning to the early history of Cuba, it should be noted that the Spaniards waited until they believed they had exhausted the wealth of Haiti, when they colonized Cuba in 1511, by sending three hundred men under Diego Velasquez, who founded Santiago

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THE SPANISH CASINO, HAVANA

on the southeast coast.† This town, for a long time, was the capital of Cuba. Baracoa, near the eastern extremity of the island, and

* During the brief period preceding the last war, the following newspaper correspondents were arrested and imprisoned or expelled from the country: Sylvester Scovel, George Bronson Rea, William Mannix, Elbert Rapelje, Charles Michelson, Lorenzo Betancourt, James Creelman, Thomas R. Dawley, Frederick W. Lawrence, William W. Gay, C. B. Pendleton, and Theodore Pous. Charles Govin, another correspondent, after an engagement between the Cubans and Spaniards, fell into the hands of the latter. Colonel Ochoa examined his passports and identification papers, then waved his hands to a file of soldiers, who riddled the prisoner with bullets.

† The Haitians lived mainly on the flesh of cattle, which they subjected to a peculiar process called "bucanning." Haiti at that time was the headquarters of numerous bands of Spanish smugglers, who copied the method of preserving meat for use on shipboard. Because of this, these men came to be known as "buccaneers."

Judicial
Out-
rages

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Trinidad, on the southern shore, were also among the first settlements. San Cristobal de la Habana was founded in 1513. This place is now known as Batabano, and is directly opposite Havana on the southern coast. Havana (*avana*) received its present name in 1519.

The first Spanish settlers in Cuba were like all who have preceded and followed them in America and other parts of the world.



THE TACON THEATRE, HAVANA

Outrage and murder were diversions of which they never wearied, and shocking cruelty towards the gentle natives was the unvarying rule.*

Velasquez occupied the island without losing a man. Each settler took possession of about three hundred natives, and compelled them to work so hard in the fields that they were soon exterminated. Negro slaves were imported from Spain and San Domingo, but so

* When a native chieftain was tied to the stake, and the torch was about to be applied to the fagots, a Franciscan monk held a crucifix in front of his face and exhorted him to repent in order that he might make sure of heaven. "Heaven!" repeated the chieftain, "are there any Spaniards there?" "A great many," was the reply. "Then," said the native, "let me go somewhere else."

dreadful was the tyranny of the Spaniards that hundreds of them also died.

Since Spain was continually at war with other European nations, Havana was peculiarly exposed to attack. During its first century it suffered severely from piratical assaults, being plundered and almost destroyed in 1528 and again in 1551. In 1585 Sir Francis Drake, with his English fleet, threatened the town, and, as an addi-

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THE PRADO, NORTH FROM CENTRAL PARK, HAVANA

tional protection, two fortresses were built. These were the Bateria de la Punta and the Castillo del Morro, both of which still guard the entrance to Havana—la Punta on the west, and the famous old Morro on the east.

In 1762, Europe was involved in the Seven-Years' War, and in January of that year hostilities were declared between England and Spain. Lord Albemarle, with a fleet of two hundred ships and a force of about twenty thousand men, appeared before Havana in the following summer. The Americans at that time were loyal subjects of Great Britain, and the colonies contributed valuable assistance in the assault upon Havana, where they arrived at a time when half the British force was disabled by sickness. Lawrence Washington, a

Attack
on
Havana

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brother of George Washington, served in the expedition, and Israel Putnam was a lieutenant-colonel, the 2,300 American troops being furnished by New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut.

The Spanish garrison numbered 27,000 men, and made a desperate defence. They consisted almost entirely of the "Cuban Volunteers," since become notorious, and no troops could have fought more bravely; but the assailants stormed the Morro, and on the 13th



INGLATERRA HOTEL, HAVANA

English
Capture
of
Havana

of August Havana surrendered, its defenders being allowed to march out with the honors of war. The prize money divided among the victors amounted to nearly \$4,000,000, of which Lord Albemarle and Sir George Pocock each pocketed more than half a million. Then, in 1763, England made one of the most foolish of bargains by giving Cuba back to Spain in return for Florida.

An unusual piece of good fortune befell Cuba when, in 1790, Luis de Las Casas was made governor, to be succeeded six years later by the Count of Santa Clara. Both were liberal and enterprising statesmen, and did a great deal to develop the inexhaustible resources of the island. The Bateria de Santa Clara, outside Havana,

was one of the many fortifications built by the Count of Santa Clara, and it was named in his honor.

Cuba showed her gratitude to Spain for the services of these two governors by declaring her loyalty to the old dynasty, in 1808, when Napoleon deposed the Bourbon King Ferdinand VII. and placed his own brother Joseph Bonaparte on the throne. It was thus Cuba won the name of "The Ever-Faithful Isle," which acquired a grim irony before the close of the century.

Joseph Bonaparte, after occupying the Spanish throne for five years, was driven out, and Ferdinand VII. came to his own. He ignored all the promises of the provisional government, and made himself an absolute despot, whose heel was struck deep into his American colonies.

The rebellions against Spanish rule began in Buenos Ayres, Venezuela, and Peru in 1809 and 1810, and all gained their independence. The loyalists in those countries took refuge in Cuba, and thus made her preponderatingly loyal; but dissatisfaction arose when Spain attempted to make the island a military station from which to direct movements against the revolting republics. As a consequence, numerous secret societies were formed, and insurrections set on foot.

The first open rebellion took place in 1820, its supporters demanding the fulfilment of the pledges made by the provisional government of Seville, when Ferdinand VII. was deposed. There were two years of fighting and anarchy before it was suppressed.

The next conspiracy was for the formation of a Cuban republic,

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COL. JOAQUIN RUIZ

Revolts
in
Cuba



A BANANA TREE IN CUBA

and was organized by the society of Soles de Bolivar—patriots who sought to emulate in Cuba the deeds of the great South American liberator. It was planned that the rising should take place on the same day in a number of cities, but instead, the leaders were arrested and imprisoned, and the revolt of 1823 came to naught.

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Six years later the Black Eagle Society, a body often referred to in the history of Cuba, formed an invading expedition, with headquarters in Mexico, and a number of recruiting agencies in the United States; but, as before, there were traitors in the ranks, and the ringleaders were seized and imprisoned before they could strike a blow.

The
Black
Eagle
Society

In 1844, the slaves on the sugar plantations about Matanzas were suspected of preparing for revolt. No real proof could be obtained, and they were put to the torture of the Inquisition. More than a thousand were convicted, seventy-eight shot, and others subjected to various brutal punishments.

Mention has already been made of the conspiracy of Narciso Lopez, a native Venezuelan, who had served in the Spanish army. He started his first revolutionary movement in 1848, but was unsuccessful. After several failures, he succeeded three years later in landing in Cuba, accompanied by a small force, and by Colonel Crittenden, of Kentucky, a West Pointer. Both Crittenden and Lopez were captured and shot.*

Spain was in the throes of one of her periodical revolutions in 1868, with the result that the gross Queen Isabella was dethroned and driven out of the country. Cuba, remembering the bitter lesson of sixty years before, took good care to remain mute regarding her loyalty to the deposed Bourbons, and, seizing her opportunity, began a revolution as the only means of obtaining redress for her grievances.

In 1873, the *Edinburgh Review* thus stated the reasons for Cuba's revolt in 1868:

“Spain governs the island of Cuba with an iron and blood-stained hand. The former holds the latter deprived of political, civil, and religious liberties. Hence the unfortunate Cubans being illegally prosecuted and sent into exile, or executed by military commissions in times of peace; hence their being kept from public meetings, and

Why
Cuba
Revolted

* See page 814.

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forbidden to speak or write on affairs of state; hence their remonstrances against the evils that afflict them being looked upon as the proceedings of rebels, from the fact that they are obliged to keep silence and obey; hence the never-ending plague of hungry officials from Spain to devour the product of their industry and labor; hence their exclusion from the art of government; hence the restrictions to which public instruction with them is subjected in order to keep



CHAPEL IN THE CEMETERY, HAVANA

Intolera-
ble
Burdens

them so ignorant as not to be able to know and enforce their rights in any shape or form whatever; hence the navy and the standing army, which are kept in their country at an enormous expenditure from their own wealth to make them bend their knees and submit their necks to the iron yoke that disgraces them; hence the grinding taxation under which they labor, and which would make them all perish in misery but for the marvellous fertility of their soil."

As illustrative of the intolerable exactions made upon Cuba by Spain, it may be stated that \$26,000,000 was wrenched annually from the island. The salary of the captain-general was \$50,000, with perquisites; of the six provincial governors, \$12,000 each with

perquisites, and the two archbishops, \$18,000 each with perquisites; and every one of them was a Spaniard. The duty on flour was so heavy that wheaten bread ceased to be used except by the wealthy families. A Cuban who received a prepaid letter at his door was obliged to pay 37½ cents additional postage. The Spaniards paid \$3.23 per capita of interest on their national debt, while the Cubans paid \$6.39. For grievances that were but a small part of these, our forefathers revolted against Great Britain in 1776.

Incredible as it may seem, Spain proposed to add to these taxes in 1868. On the 10th of October of that year, Carlos M. de Cespedes, a lawyer of Bayamo, issued a declaration of independence on the plantation of Yara, and placed himself at the head of about a hundred poorly armed men. Several thousand recruits soon gathered under his leadership, and in April,

1869, a republican constitution was drawn up, providing for a president, vice-president, cabinet, and legislature. Slavery was declared abolished, and under this constitution Cespedes was elected president, Francisco Aguilero vice-president, and a legislature convened.

The war, which opened sharply, soon degenerated into guerrilla tactics, without decisive results on either side, until at the end of ten years everybody was ready for peace. Martinez Campos, the Spanish commander, made pledges under which General Maximo Gomez, the insurgent leader, accepted the treaty of El Zanjon, February 10, 1878. By the terms of this treaty, the Cubans were guaranteed

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ALPHONSO XIII, KING OF SPAIN

The Ten
Years'
War

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representation in the Spanish Cortes, and pardon was granted to all who had taken any part in the insurrection.

But once more Cuba learned that in trusting to Spanish honor she leaned upon a broken reed. Under the electoral system that was devised at Madrid, the loyalists easily secured control of the polls, and never failed to elect a majority of the delegates, who invariably legis-

lated against the interests of Cuba. The cities were so smothered by debt that no attention was paid to sewerage or cleanliness. Except in Havana, all insane persons were confined in prison cells. The man who attempted to labor found that on an average two days in every week were lost because they were church or state holidays. Out of the meagre earnings of the remaining two-thirds of the year, Cuba had to pay the exorbitant salaries of her oppressors and contribute more than half a million dollars an-



CHRISTINA, THE QUEEN REGENT OF SPAIN

nually to the officials who deliberately robbed her of that sum. No country in the world is so honeycombed with corruption as Spain.

Some of the reforms granted by Spain to the island may thus be described: The "governor-general" became "captain-general," the change being only in name. The right of banishment was abandoned, but under the "law of vagrancy" the obnoxious citizens were expelled precisely as before. The respectable members of society were declared "immune" against attack, but were assaulted as vigorously as ever, and nobody was punished therefor. Every office that brought any salary or conferred any influence was appropriated by a

Broken
Pledges

Spaniard, and the debt saddled upon the Cubans amounted to more than one hundred dollars per capita.

Among the results of the Ten-Years' War was the division of the island into the six provinces, already named, and the extirpation of

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A CUBAN BLOCK HOUSE (NEAR VIEW)

slavery in 1886 as one of the consequences of the prolonged conflict. The rage of the Cubans over their betrayal led to the resolution to set on foot another insurrection that should be ended only by death

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or independence. Never again would they place any trust in the solemn pledge of a Spaniard.

The friends of Cuban independence were widely scattered, but kept in close touch with one another. Thousands were in the United States, and New York city was the headquarters.* The dominating spirit was José Martí, who was a brilliant organizer, and soon had the moral and material support of more than a hundred

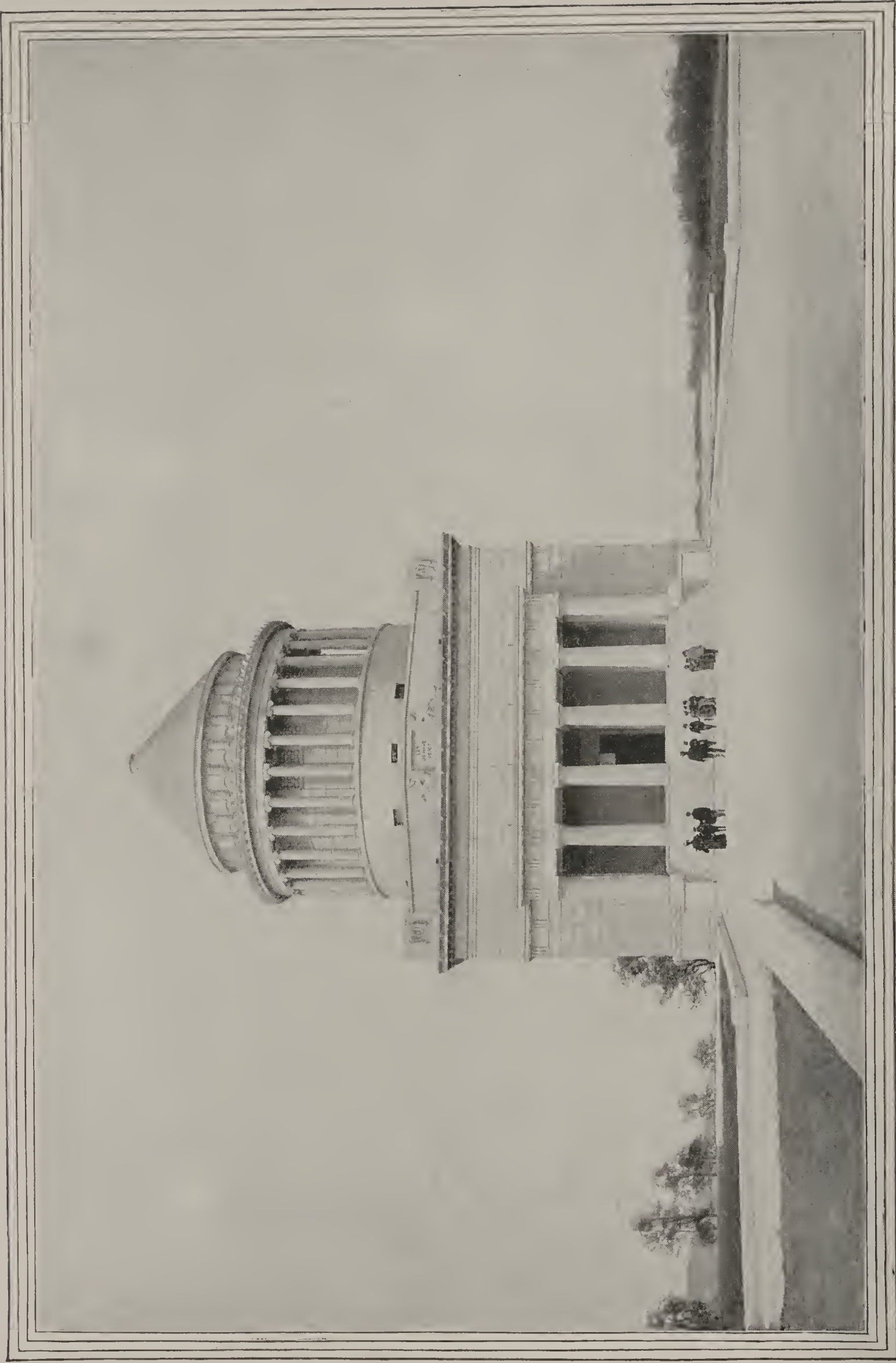


A SCENE IN EASTERN CUBA

Corrupt
Aid

clubs. A large amount of money was raised for purchasing arms and ammunition, and our Government was kept busy in intercepting the numerous filibustering expeditions, many of which succeeded in landing men and supplies on the coast of Cuba. After all, however, the greatest help came from the corrupt Spanish officials, who eagerly placed themselves in the way of being bribed. Thousands of the arms in the hands of the insurgents were purchased at the government arsenals, and there was scarcely a check to the contraband sup-

* This organization is often incorrectly referred to as a "Junta." Such was the proper term during the Ten-Years War, but not since that time.



GENERAL GRANT'S TOMB—DEDICATED APRIL 27, 1897

plies that were sent through the lines to the Cubans confidently awaiting them a short distance inland. Few suspect how general and all-pervading was this corruption among the Spanish officials.* Finally, early in 1895, the command of the new Cuban revolutionary army was tendered to and accepted by Maximo Gomez, who was still living with his family at his home in western San Domingo. The offer was made by José Marti, president of the organization that had been formed.

The leaders, after full consultation, agreed that a general rising should take place in all of the six provinces on February 24, 1895.

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Gomez
in Com-
mand



A SPANISH CAMP

In only three of the provinces, however, were the insurgents able to display the flag of the republic on the date named, and for a time the important events were confined to one of the provinces.

Calleja, the captain-general, was liberally disposed toward the insurgents, but the Madrid Government baffled every generous move on his part. The uprising in the province of Santiago de Cuba, on February 24, seemed so trifling that the Spanish authorities were

Obstruc-
tions at
Madrid

* One of the most noted of these filibusters told the writer that he regularly set aside, on each voyage, a certain percentage to be paid to the officials. Not once did he fail thus to secure immunity, sometimes for less than the usual price. The most that the American captain was ever asked by these model government servants was to be circumspect in his actions, and to help shield them from being called to account.

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not alarmed, but the insurgents dodged back and forth, eluding the forces sent against them, and were helped by their friends, who seemed to be everywhere. Following this came the discovery of the widespread conspiracy, including the plan for killing the resident gover-



A CUBAN BEDROOM

nor in the province of Santiago de Cuba, the Spanish officials, and the wholesale destruction by fire of a great deal of valuable property.

When this startling news reached Calleja he was alarmed. He proclaimed martial law in Santiago and Matanzas, and sent troops into those two provinces; but the insurgents easily eluded them and continually added to their numbers.

**Martial
Law**

At that time there were three parties in Cuba. The Loyalists were Spaniards either by birth or Spanish patronage. They held the

offices, and had all their interests wrapped up in the continuance of the existing order of things.

The Autonomists denounced the misgovernment of Cuba, but favored home rule and not independence for the island. To them the cure for all the misery was a system like that enjoyed by Canada under English rule.

The third party were the insurgents or Separatists, who saw but one possible remedy—independence—and were ready to risk everything to secure it.

On the 1st of April, 1895, Antonio Maceo, accompanied by twenty-two comrades of the Ten-Years' War, coming from Costa Rica, landed on the eastern extremity of the island. The Spanish cavalry were on the watch for them, and a sharp fight followed, in which several of the Cubans were killed and Maceo had a narrow escape. He succeeded, however, in shaking off his pursuers, and threaded his way westward, living on the tropical fruits that grow wild in the woods. He was still advancing with the caution of an Indian scout, when, a little way north of Guantanamo, he ran directly into an insurgent camp. When they discovered that he was the Maceo who had fought with so much brilliancy in the Ten-Years' War, they were wild with enthusiasm. He assumed command of all the insurgent troops in the neighborhood, and the knowledge that he had taken the field rapidly spreading, gave an impetus to recruiting and led to the most determined efforts by the Spanish authorities to crush him.

In several sharp skirmishes, Maceo more than held his own, and thus added to the patriotic enthusiasm of his followers. On April 11, 1895, Gomez and José Marti landed on the southern coast from Santo Domingo. With difficulty they eluded the Spanish patrols and pickets, and reached an insurgent camp, where the scarred veteran assumed his duties as commander-in-chief. With several thousand men, Gomez and Marti headed towards the central provinces, with the purpose of arranging for a Constituent Assembly, but Marti was led into an ambush by a treacherous guide and killed.

By this time, the captain-general comprehended the serious task on his hands. The flames of insurrection were spreading like a prairie fire, and, in response to Calleja's calls, Spain sent more than 25,000 troops to quell the rebellion. Hope was greatly strengthened by the arrival, on April 16, of Field-Marshal Campos at Santiago de Cuba, on

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The
Different
Parties

Death of
Marti

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Failure
of the
Trochas

his way to Havana to relieve Calleja. It was Campos who brought the Ten-Years' War to a close, and the feeling was general that he would again be successful.

Campos now made the attempt to divide Cuba into zones by a number of powerfully guarded military lines, crossing the island from north to south, and by advancing eastward in irresistible force to drive the insurgents into the sea. The plan appeared to be a good one, but proved a failure. The trochas were crossed at will by the rebels, and the Spanish regulars were continually harassed by the Cubans, who avoided general engagements with the greatly superior forces and confined themselves to guerrilla tactics.

Gomez felt strong enough in June to invade Puerto Principe, and force his way to his old campaigning-ground, where recruits flocked to his standard by the hundred. Somewhat later, Maceo, who was in Santiago province, moved against Bayamo and captured several trainloads of provisions on the way to that place. The garrison was soon in such sore straits that Campos, at the head of 1,500 men, marched to its relief. While yet several miles from Bayamo, he was furiously assailed by Maceo with a superior force and decisively defeated, sustaining a loss of more than 120 men and officers. Had Maceo been provided with artillery, the Spanish force would have been annihilated.

Campos is one of Spain's ablest generals, and everything that was possible was done by him. The reinforcements which reached him late in summer included the best veterans in the Spanish army. He concentrated his troops at strong points on the railways and along the trochas, and used the utmost vigilance. The seaports, being powerfully garrisoned and under the protecting guns of the enemy's warships, were always beyond reach of the rebels.

Mutual
Ferocity

With the beginning of the autumn campaign, the Cubans had fully 20,000 men in the field, and they displayed the same frightful ferocity as the Spaniards. Not only did they fight with the fury of desperation, but they blew up trains and bridges with dynamite, levied mercilessly upon the planters, utterly destroyed plantations, and, still avoiding open fighting, harried the enemy without cessation.

The campaign of 1896 opened the new policy of the insurgents, which was destruction rather than fighting. The purpose of this was to shut off the revenues of Spain from the productions of Cuba, thereby striking the mother country in its most sensitive spot, and leav-

ing her to choose between utter ruin and independence for the island. Accordingly, Gomez advanced westward again, not resting until he entered Havana province. Bearing in mind Maceo's lodgment in Pinar del Rio, it will be seen that the Cubans had crossed every province and passed the entire length of the island. The campaign of Campos had proved a failure, and he was criticised so viciously for his humane and civilized methods that he returned to Spain, and was succeeded by one of the worst miscreants that figure on the pages of history. This was Valeriano Weyler, who arrived early in February.*

The new captain-general established two trochas, or military lines of fortified posts, across the island, one from Jucaro to Moron in the western part of the province of Puerto

Principe, while the other, shorter and stronger, reached from Mariel on the north to Majana on the south, barely within the eastern boundary of Pinar del Rio. This latter trocha was made of barbed wire fence,

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Failure
of
Campos



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GENERAL VALERIANO WEYLER

* See page 1720. The striking personality of Don Valeriano Weyler y Nicolán, Marquis of Tenerife, is thus described by Elbert Rappleye:

"And what a picture! A little man. An apparition of blacks—black eyes, black hair, black beard—dark, exceedingly dark complexion; a plain black attire, black shoes,

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A
Strong
Trocha

Progress
of
the War

four feet high, with a trench three feet wide and four feet deep, forty yards to the rear, including also a breastwork of palmetto logs. Still farther to the rear were the log-houses which sheltered the troops. The sentinels were posted directly behind the barbed wire, and, though the trocha was only twenty-three miles in length, it required 15,000 men to guard the line. Its object was to keep Maceo in the province of Pinar del Rio, and to prevent a junction of the two divisions of the revolutionary army. It was a formidable obstacle, but ineffective for its purpose. Maceo, with a small force of troops, crossed it on the night of December 4, 1896, with the purpose of consulting with Gomez. He met his death three days later, through the treachery, as is generally believed, of Dr. Zertucha, his personal physician.* The successor of Maceo was General Rius Rivera.

The numerical strength of the insurgents was undoubtedly overestimated, but the revolution had assumed such proportions that Spain was obliged continually to send reinforcements to Cuba. Thousands of these were the flower of the army, doomed to perish miserably in the pestilential swamps of the island, while the strength of the insurgents steadily increased.

Weyler's policy may be given in a sentence: the extermination of the rebels root and branch. His vigor gave him a few successes at first, and the Madrid authorities were continually cheered by his telegrams announcing the rapid progress of his methods of pacification. Nevertheless, the rebellion grew, and the hospitals of Havana were filled with the sick and wounded Spanish soldiers. In the spring of 1897, Rivera was wounded and taken prisoner, and military operations in Pinar del Rio dwindled to indecisive guerrilla fighting. Although Rivera was released some months later, he accomplished nothing of account. As early as January 11, 1897, Weyler proclaimed the pacification of the Havana, Matanzas, and Pinar del Rio provinces, and followed up the proclamation by the fiercest possible

black tie, a very dirty shirt and soiled standing collar, with no jewelry and not a relief from the aspect of darkness anywhere on his person. . . .

"His eyes, far apart, bright, alert, and striking, took me in at a glance. His face seemed to run to chin, his lower jaw protruding far beyond any ordinary indication of firmness, persistence, or will power. . . . His nose is aquiline, bloodless, and obtrusive.

"Inferior physically, unsoldierly in bearing, exhibiting no trace of refined sensibilities, nor pleasure in the gentle associations that others live for, he is, nevertheless, the embodiment of mental acuteness, craft, unscrupulous, fearless, and of indomitable perseverance."

* See page 1721.

warfare throughout Matanzas. His pacification proclamations soon became a grim jest, and his brutality caused censure by the Liberalists in Madrid.

The insurgents never lost their hold upon Santiago and Puerto Principe provinces in the East. By strenuous and brave efforts, the Spaniards held the Bayamo district until April 25, 1898, when the opening of the war with the United States compelled its abandonment. Throughout most of the year, the principal operations of the insurgents were those of General Calixto Garcia, a veteran of the Ten-Years' War, and next in rank to Gomez. He was prevented for a long time from effecting a junction with his chief by the greatly strengthened Jucaro-Moron trocha, Gomez in the mean time being active in the Santa Clara province.*

Now came Weyler's fearful policy of "reconcentration," which seemed the only possible hope of crushing the rebellion. Since the country people sympathized with the struggling patriots, and aided them so far as they dared, it was determined to bring

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GEN. CALIXTO GARCIA

A
Fearful
Policy

* With Gomez as commander-in-chief, the six divisions of the Cuban army operating in the six provinces were : Antonio Maceo, Pinar del Rio ; General Aguirre, Havana ; Lacret, Matanzas ; Carillo, Santa Clara ; Suarez, Puerto Principe ; José Maceo, Santiago. Suarez was cashiered for cowardice, and later Garcia replaced him in the East. José Maceo died, and Antonio Maceo was killed.

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them into the cities, where they could raise no food for the insurgents and must themselves starve to death. The message of President McKinley to Congress, April 11, 1898, contained these words:

“The efforts of Spain added to the horrors of the strife a new and inhuman phase happily unprecedented in the modern history of civilized Christian people. The policy of devastation and concentration,



GENERAL PANDO

inaugurated by Captain-General Pando on October 21, 1896, in the province of Pinar del Rio, was thence extended to embrace all of the island to which the power of the Spanish arms was able to reach by military occupation or by military operations. The peasantry, including all dwellers in the open agricultural interior, were driven into the garrisoned towns or isolated places held by the troops. The raising and movement of provisions of all kinds were interdicted. The

fields were laid waste, dwellings unroofed or fired, mills destroyed, and, in short, everything that could desolate the land and render it unfit for human habitation or support was commanded by one or the other of the contending parties, and executed by all the powers at their disposal. By the time the present administration took office, a year ago, reconcentration, so called, had been made effective over the better part of the four central and western provinces, Santa Clara, Matanzas, Havana, and Pinar del Rio. The agricultural population, to the estimated number of 300,000 or more, was herded within the towns and their immediate vicinage, deprived of the means of support, rendered destitute of shelter, left poorly clad, and exposed to the most unsanitary conditions.

Presi-
dent
McKin-
ley's
Message

“As the scarcity of food increased with the devastation of the

depopulated areas of production, destitution and want became misery and starvation. Month by month the death-rate increased in alarming ratio. By March, 1897, according to conservative estimates from official Spanish sources, the mortality among the reconcentrados from starvation and the diseases thereto incident exceeded fifty per cent of their total number. No practical relief was accorded to the destitute. The overburdened towns, already suffering from the general dearth, could give no aid. So-called zones of cultivation that were established within the immediate area of effective military control about the cities and fortified camps proved illusory as a remedy for the suffering. The unfortunates, being for the most part women and children, or aged and helpless men enfeebled by disease and hunger, could not have tilled the soil without tool, seed, or shelter, to provide for their own support or for the supply of the cities. Reconcentration worked its predestined result. As I said in my message of last December, it was not a civilized warfare; it was extermination. The only peace it could beget was that of the wilderness and the grave."



SENATOR JOHN M. THURSTON

Wise and patriotic men could not credit the accounts of the suffering and horrors in Cuba. Several United States Senators and Congressmen, including Senators Proctor of Vermont, Gallinger of New Hampshire, and Thurston of Nebraska, visited Cuba in March, 1898, and saw with their own eyes the horrifying scenes. The invalid wife of Senator Thurston was so over-

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come by the shock that she died before she could return to her home.*

With not a throb of pity in a Spanish breast, the miserable reconcentrados died by the thousand, until a quarter of a million breathed out their lives amid the pangs of starvation and disease. There was nothing under the law of nations to prevent this



SENATOR REDFIELD PROCTOR

unspeakable crime, for the reconcentrados were not prisoners of war for whom Spain would have been obliged to provide. But our Government protested so earnestly that in October, 1897, the Spanish authorities went through the form of instituting a few weak measures for the relief of the sufferers. The mind fails to grasp the awful truth that Spain deliberately starved to death one-sixth of the inhabitants in Cuba. The act, like the Armenian massacres, was among the greatest crimes in history.

President McKinley was so deeply impressed by the reports which Consul-

General Lee made to him of these horrors, that shortly after his inauguration he asked Congress for a grant of \$50,000 for the

* "I shall refer to these horrible things no further. They are there ; God pity me, I have seen them ; they will remain in my mind forever, and this is almost the twentieth century.

"Christ died nineteen hundred years ago, and Spain is a Christian nation. She has set up more crosses in more lands, beneath more skies, and under them has butchered more people than all the other nations of the earth combined.

"God grant that before another Christmas morning the last vestige of Spanish tyranny and oppression will have vanished from the Western hemisphere."—*John M. Thurston.*

relief of the reconcentrados, and the return to the United States of such Americans as wished to leave the island. The grant was promptly made, and in the latter part of 1897 the Red Cross Association, one of the most beneficent organizations that ever existed, undertook to minister to the relief of the perishing people. Clara Barton, president of the American section, was still in Armenia, where she was busy with her divine work, but she made haste to return to America and threw all her energies into labor for the dying multitudes in Cuba. The cry from that island was so distressful that independent movements were set on foot. Supplies and money came from all sections, and though it was impossible to relieve a quarter of the sufferers, much was done in that direction.

President McKinley's special message of April 11, 1898, contained the following paragraphs:

"The success which had attended the limited measure of relief extending to the suffering American citizens in Cuba, by the judicious expenditure, through consular agencies, of money appropriated expressly for their succor by the joint resolution approved May 24, 1897, prompted the humane extension of a similar scheme of aid to the great body of sufferers. A suggestion to this end was acquiesced in by the Spanish authorities. On the 24th of December last I caused to be issued an appeal to the American people, inviting contributions, in money or in kind, for the succor of the starving sufferers in Cuba, following this on the 8th of January by a similar public announcement of the formation of a Central Cuban

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Relief
for the
Cubans



SENATOR T. H. GALLINGER

Presi-
dent
McKin-
ley's
Words

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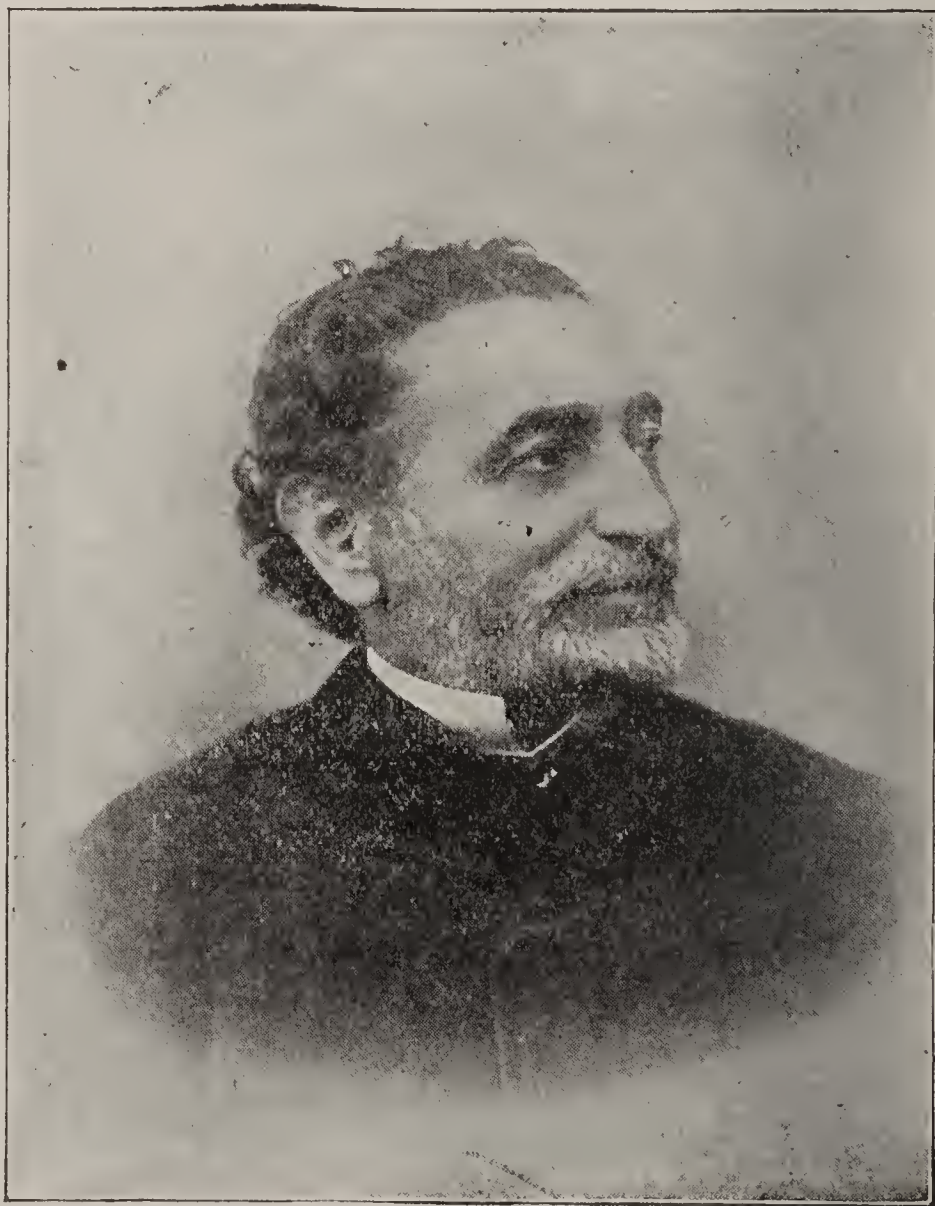
RAMON BLANCO, CAPTAIN-GENERAL OF CUBA

Relief Committee, with headquarters in New York city, composed of three members representing the American National Red Cross and the religious and business elements of the community.

“The efforts of that committee have been untiring, and have accomplished much. Arrangements for free transportation to Cuba have greatly aided the charitable work. The president of the American Red Cross and rep-

The
Relief
Meas-
ures

representatives of other contributory organizations have generously visited Cuba, and co-operated with the consul-general and the local authorities to make effective disposition of the relief collected through the efforts of the central committee. Nearly \$200,000 in money and supplies has already reached the sufferers, and more is forthcoming. The supplies are admitted duty free, and transportation



SEÑOR SAGASTA, PRIME MINISTER OF SPAIN

to the interior has been arranged, so that the relief, at first necessarily confined to Havana and the larger cities, is now extending through most, if not all, of the towns where suffering exists. Thousands of lives have already been saved."

The Spanish authorities at Madrid were shamed into voting some \$600,000 for the dying reconcentrados,* and Captain-General Ramon Blanco, who succeeded Weyler, recalled in October, 1897, rescinded

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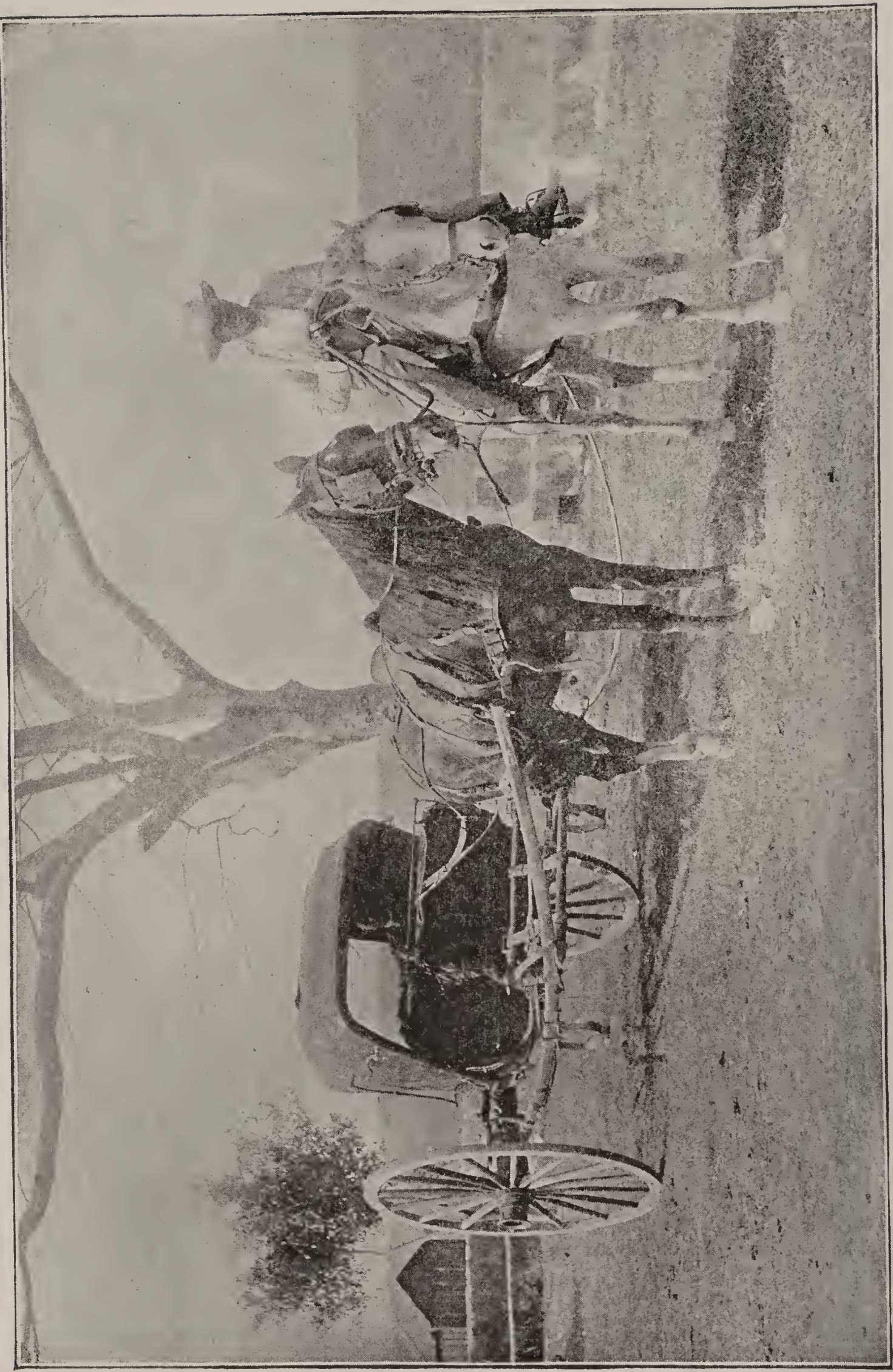
A SUGAR PLANTATION, CUBA

his predecessor's inhuman order; but it was too late to undo the fearful mischief, and the thousands continued to die like so many infected sheep.

Sagasta, the leader of the Liberal Party in Spain, was open in his denunciation of Weyler, and was steadily gaining strength over the Conservative ministry, when, August 6, 1897, Canovas, prime minister, was assassinated, and some time later a new cabinet was formed

Death of
Canovas

* "How much of that sum will be expended for the benefit of the sufferers?" was asked of General Lee by the Foreign Relations Committee of the United States Senate. "Not a dollar," was the prompt response of General Lee. "It will all be divided among the officials themselves." And such has been the custom for centuries in the country that is said to be the proudest in Europe, and whose sons consider their honor more to be valued than life itself.



A CUBAN VOLANTE, OR FASHIONABLE CARRIAGE

with Sagasta at the head. They pledged themselves to grant autonomy or home rule to Cuba, and in the mean time to push the war with greater vigor than before.

The Cubans might have been won over to autonomy had it been possible to forget the treachery of Spain twenty years previous. They absolutely refused to have anything to do with the scheme; and their hatred of it was no less bitter than that of the "Weyler-

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A GROUP OF GUERRILLAS IN CAMP

ites," who opposed showing any mercy or consideration to the rebels. Thus placed between two fires, autonomy was doomed from the first.

General Ramon Blanco, the successor of Weyler, arrived in Havana on the last day of October, 1897. He seems to have made an honest effort to better the horrible condition of things and to treat the insurgents with justice, but he was so hampered as to become powerless.* On the 8th of November he issued an amnesty procla-

Captain
General
Blanco

* Don Ramon Blanco y Erenas, Marquis of Pena Plata, became distinguished in the war against the Carlists. He was captain-general of Cuba in 1879, and he has been gov-

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mation, and not an insurgent paid any attention to it. Fighting went on as before, and the ruined sugar-mills were not disturbed. No decisive advantage was gained by either side. As regarded the scheme of autonomy, Gomez notified Blanco that any one who attempted to visit the insurgent camps with such an offer would be treated as a spy and shot. Not only was this fearful warning uttered,

but in more than one instance it was carried out in spirit and letter.

It will be remembered that José Martí was killed early in the revolutionary movement. When the confusion resulting from the leader's loss had partly subsided, the first Constituent Assembly met in the province of Puerto Principe, September 13, 1895. There were members present from all the provinces, and the Cuban Government was formally organized by the adoption of a constitution. The supreme power was vested in a Government Council, which was to be composed of the president of the Re-



SEÑOR DUPUY DE LOME

public, the vice-president, and the secretaries of war, of the interior, of foreign affairs, and of agriculture with a sub-treasury for each of the departments.

Cuban
Govern-
ment
Or-
ganized

The organization was effected on September 19, with Salvador Cisneros Betancourt as president, and Bartolomé Massó as vice-president, while Dr. Thomas Estrada Palma was made minister plenipotentiary and diplomatic agent abroad, with headquarters in the

error at Catalonia and in the Philippines. He is not so lenient as Campos nor so merciless as Weyler

United States. Gomez was confirmed as general-in-chief of the army, with Maceo as second in command.

The presidential term was fixed at two years. The second administration, elected and installed at Yaza, October 20, 1897, was composed as follows:

<i>President,</i>	Bartolomé Massó
<i>Vice-President,</i>	Domingo Mendez Capote

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ANOTHER TYPE OF CUBAN BLOCK HOUSE

Cabinet

<i>Secretary of War,</i>	José B. Aleman
<i>Secretary of Foreign Affairs,</i>	Andreo Moreno de la Torre
<i>Secretary of the Treasury,</i>	Ernesto Font Stirling
<i>Secretary of the Interior,</i>	Manuel Ramos Silva

The
Second
Adminis-
tration

Assistant Secretary of War, Rafael de Cardenas; *Assistant Secretary of Foreign Affairs,* Nicolas Alverdi; *Assistant Secretary of the*

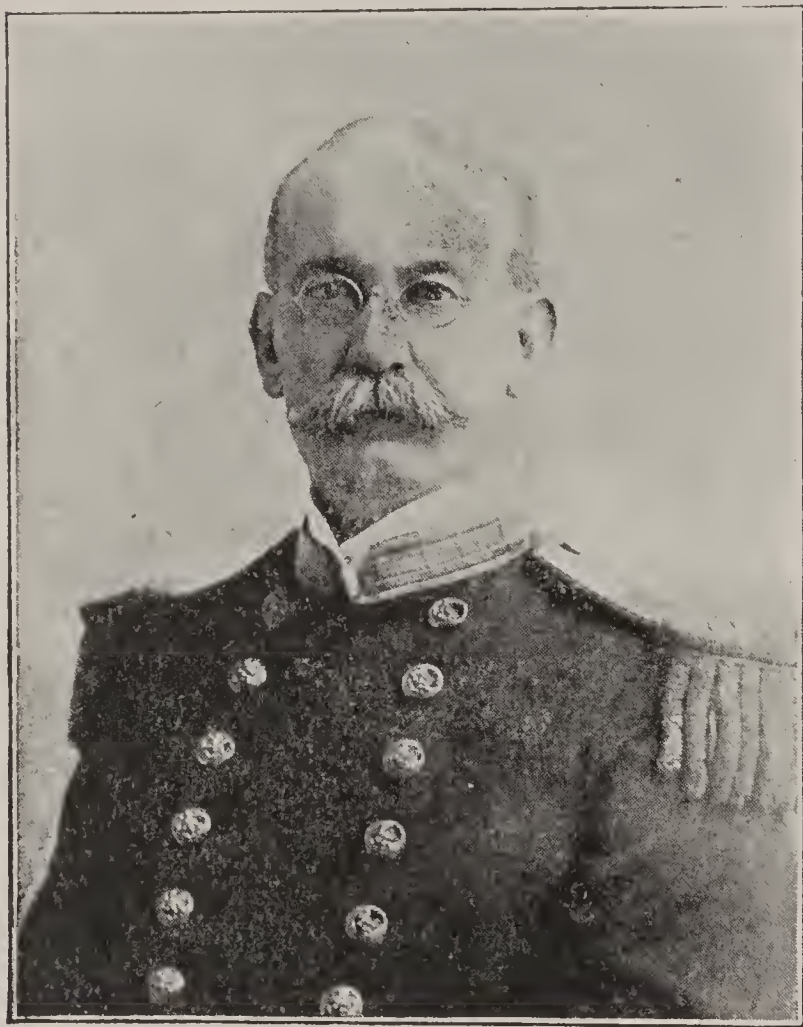
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Treasury, Saturnio Larling. The general-in-chief of the army in the field was Maximo Gomez, and the lieutenant-general Calixto Garcia.

The Cuban capital of necessity was an itinerant one, the exigencies of war compelling it frequently to shift from one point to another. While the friends of Cuba in Congress strenuously in-

sisted upon the recognition of the Cuban Government, it is unquestionably a fact that it was never entitled by the law of nations to such recognition.

The atrocity of Spain toward the Cubans and the frightful sufferings of the latter created an intense sympathy throughout the United States for the revolutionists, and an equally intense hostility against the Madrid Government. The good offices which President Cleveland tendered were declined, as were those of President McKinley, but

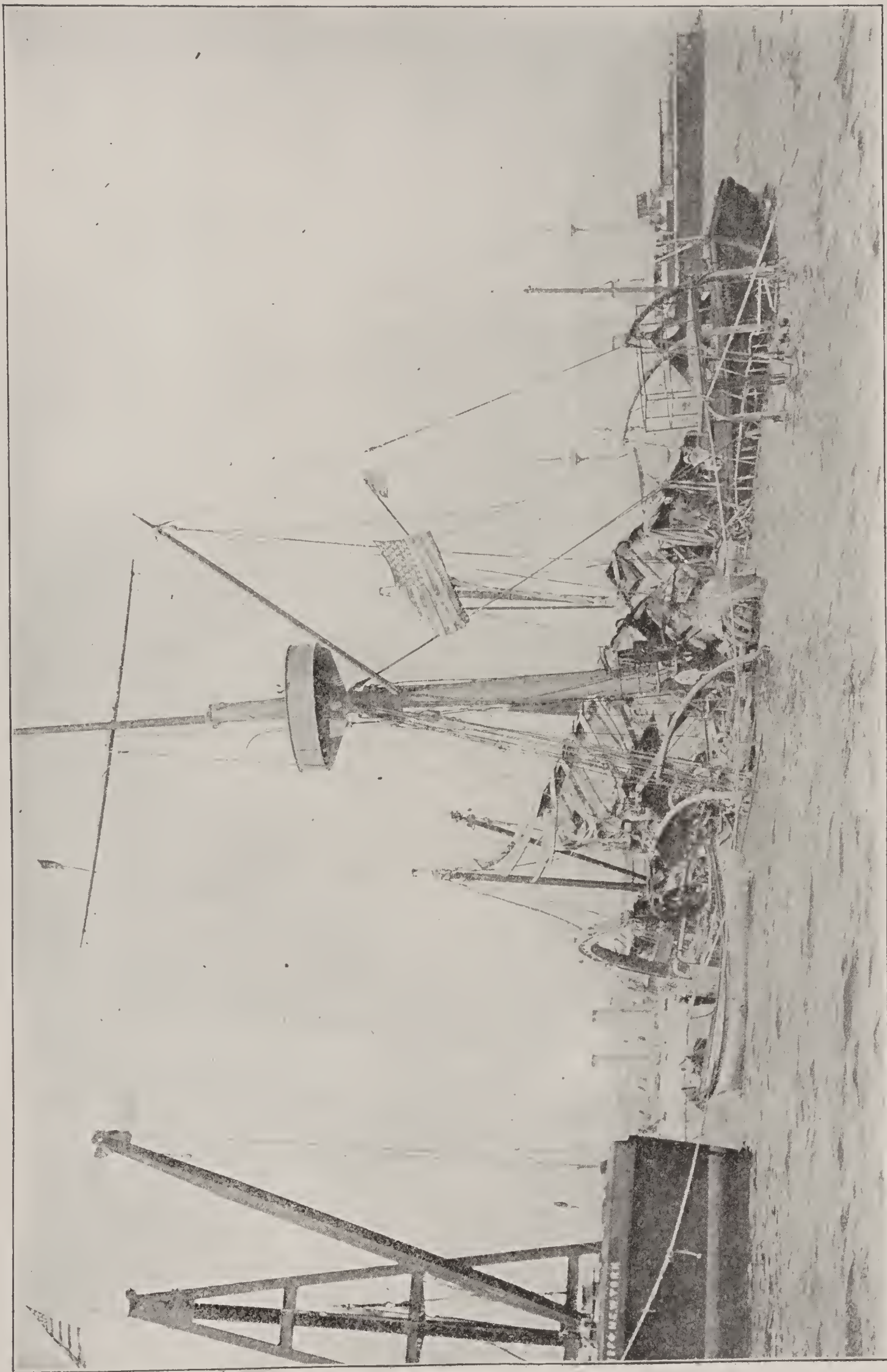


CAPTAIN CHARLES D. SIGSBEE

Sagasta saw the storm that was rising, and tried to hold our Government inactive by promises and partial reforms. At the same time, the Spanish war office strained every nerve toward building a navy so much more powerful than ours that we would not dare to go to war.

Sympathy with
the
Cubans

The impatience and irritation of the American nation increased under the growing horrors in Cuba, the incapacity and cruelty of Spain, and the exasperating charges freely made in the Spanish press that the prolongation of the war was due to the aid given by Americans to Cubans. In some instances there were grounds for these charges, but the success of many of the filibustering expeditions, as already shown, was due to the help of the Spanish officials



THE WRECK OF THE "MAINE"

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The
DeLome
Letter

themselves, while our Government put forth the most vigorous efforts to check all illegal enterprises.

Public opinion was in this sensitive state when a Cuban sympathizer stole from the Havana post-office a letter written by Señor Don Dupuy De Lome, the Spanish minister in Washington, to Señor Canalejas, who had acted some months before as the confidential agent of Sagasta in this country. The thief forwarded the letter to the Cuban headquarters in New York, where it was photographed and published on February 9.

In this letter, President McKinley was referred to as a "low politician," and the writer shamelessly admitted the treacherous part he was acting in the negotiations then pending. There was but one thing for De Lome to do: he cabled his resignation, and in March Señor Luis Polo y Bernabé became his successor.

In accordance with the custom among nations, the American battleship *Maine* was ordered to Havana, on January 24, 1898. This second-class battleship had a displacement of 6,682 tons, a length of 318 feet, a breadth of 57 feet, and a speed of 17½ knots. Her guns were four 10-inch and six 6-inch breech-loading rifles, seven 6-pounder and eight 1-pounder rapid-fire, and four Gatlings. She had four torpedo-tubes, and her armor was 12 inches on the sides, 8 inches on the turrets, 12 inches on the barbettes, and 2 inches on the deck. She had 34 officers and 370 men, and cost \$2,500,000. Captain Charles D. Sigsbee was the commander.

On Tuesday night, February 15, 1898, at forty minutes past nine o'clock, while the *Maine* lay quietly at anchor, she was destroyed by an appalling explosion, and 266 officers and men were killed—most of them by being wedged and mangled in the crush of the wreck, where those yet living were held fast and drowned by the immediate sinking of the shattered battleship.

Destruc-
tion of
the
"Maine"

The news of this disaster sent a thrill of horror throughout the world, instantly followed by a feeling of almost irrestrainable rage on the part of Americans, for scarcely one person in a thousand doubted that the explosion was the work of Spanish officials, and that it had been done deliberately. Had this been established beyond all question, the tempest of indignation that swept over the country would have carried everything before it. But the doubt remained, and the Americans gave a proof of their wonderful power of self-control by patiently awaiting the verdict of the Board of Inquiry at once

organized by the Government, and consisting of Captain W. T. Sampson, Captain F. E. Chadwick, Lieutenant W. P. Potter, and Lieutenant-Commander Adolph Marix.

In describing the explosion, Captain Sigsbee said :

“It was a bursting, rending, and crashing sound or roar of immense volume, largely metallic in character. It was succeeded by a metallic sound, probably of falling débris, a trembling and lurching motion of the vessel, then an impression of subsidence, attended by an eclipse of the electric lights and intense darkness within the cabin. I knew immediately that the *Maine* had blown up and that she was sinking. . . . Nearing the outer entrance, I met Private Anthony, the orderly at the cabin door at the time. He ran into me, as I remember, apologizing in some fashion, and reported to me that the ship had been blown up and was sinking.”

The investigation was of the most thorough and impartial nature, and continued for twenty-three days, every means that could possibly throw any light upon the tragedy being employed. The report was made March 28, being dated a week earlier, and may be given in the original words :

“The Court found that the loss of the *Maine*, on the occasion named, was not in any respect due to fault or negligence on the part of any of the officers of said vessel.

“In the opinion of the Court, the *Maine* was destroyed by the explosion of a submarine mine, which caused the partial explosion of two or more of her forward magazines.

“The Court has been unable to obtain evidence fixing the responsibility for the destruction of the *Maine* upon any person or persons.” *

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Captain
Sigsbee's
Descrip-
tion

Verdict
of the
Board of
Inquiry

* In the momentous events that soon followed, all interest in the identity of the criminals seemed to disappear. There is more than one person high in authority who claims that he could name the two men who exploded the submarine mine. The probabilities are that they were “Weylerites,” who lost patience with what they regarded as the weakness of the Spanish Government, and took this method of expressing their hatred of all Americans. The penalty which their country was compelled to pay for their unspeakable crime was indeed a heavy one.





CHAPTER XCIX

McKINLEY'S ADMINISTRATION, 1897-1901 (Continued)

OUR WAR WITH SPAIN (Continued)

Opening of the War—Battle of Manila

[*Authorities* : It may or may not be true that the blowing up of the *Maine* was the immediate cause of the war between our country and Spain. The latter yielded so much ground during the diplomatic negotiations between the two countries that many believe she, foreseeing the inevitable loss of Cuba, would in the end have peaceably parted with the island ; but Spanish tenacity on all questions affecting the "honor" of her people makes it probable that she had already gone as far as pacific means could induce her to go. The moral certainty that, while Spain was not the actual criminal, the crime was committed by Spaniards, roused to the uttermost depth the rage of the American nation. "Remember the *Maine*!" was not the cry of a puritanical and forgiving people, but it was the voice of an outraged nation which felt that the smiting hand had been stayed too long. The authorities are of the same general character as those named at the head of the preceding chapter.]



THE opening of the year, with all the signs pointing to war with Spain, found the United States wholly unprepared for hostilities. There were hardly two rounds of ammunition apiece for the guns of the coast fortifications, which were—and still are—only partly completed, with many of the huge cannon unmounted, and only a few battleships in condition for effective fighting. A great naval power like England, by moving promptly, could have swept the Atlantic, Gulf, and Pacific coasts, and destroyed or laid under contribution every city and town on the seaboard.

But the American spirit was undaunted, and no nation in history has surpassed us in self-reliance and courage. Our resources are

practically limitless, while Spain was bankrupt, and so weak in numbers and so low in *morale*, as compared with the United States, that in a fair measurement of strength it was inevitable that she should be broken to fragments. Nevertheless, she was defiant, and the war spirit was so dominant that the cool and far-seeing leaders were swept onward by the current, and had to choose between revolution at home or war with the “young giant of the West.”

Our Government pushed its preparations with the utmost energy. Modern wars henceforward must be mainly fought on the seaboard and ocean. The coast fortifications were strengthened, material was accumulated and distributed, recruiting was hurried in all branches of the service, and arrangements were made for mobilizing not only the regular army, numbering about 25,000 men, but the National Guard of the respective States. At the government and the contractors' shipyards the work went on night and day. All the available ships at home were bought, and agents were sent to Europe to purchase every craft in the market that promised to be of use, together with cannon and many tons of ammunition. The monitors and antiquated vessels that had been dozing for a generation were roused up, overhauled, and put in condition for coast defence. The organization of a fleet of patrol ships and of auxiliary cruisers was begun, and millions of dollars were expended in buying and converting scores of merchant vessels.

The war spirit was universal. The moans of the helpless and dying in Cuba were not borne in vain across the narrow waters. The impending war was to be one for humanity, and the noblest promptings of manhood stirred the Americans to action. When President McKinley asked for \$50,000,000 as an emergency fund for the national defence, Congress on the 8th of March gave it without debate, and without a single vote in opposition. Directly afterward, two regiments of artillery were added to the regular army in order properly to man the heavy defensive guns at different points on the Atlantic and Gulf seabords.

The President had been a brave soldier throughout the Civil War, and had proven his exalted patriotism. He knew the fearful meaning of war, and dreaded to see the “unleashing of the dogs.” Amid the rising tempest of indignation he never once lost his self-poise, but strove with all the ability and energy of his nature to reach the beneficent end in view through peaceful means. The report of the Naval

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Spain's
War
Spirit

Ameri-
can En-
thusiasm

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The
Presi-
dent's
Delibera-
tion

Board of Inquiry that the *Maine* was blown up by an external mine was made on the 28th of March. His historical message to Congress, on April 11, was withheld in order to give the American residents in Cuba time to leave, and with the hope also that the anger of his own people would cool.

A nation that is slow to wrath is the more terrible when it is roused. Unable to stay the fast-rising storm, the President, in his



SCENE ON THE SAN JUAN, MATANZAS

Cuban message of April 11, laid the facts before Congress, to which body he submitted the whole matter.

An impassioned debate followed, and several days passed before the two branches reached an agreement, the point of variance being the question of recognizing the insurgents in Cuba. Finally, on the 19th day of April, the following joint resolution, of which Senator John B. Foraker of Ohio was the author, was adopted, and approved the next day by the President:

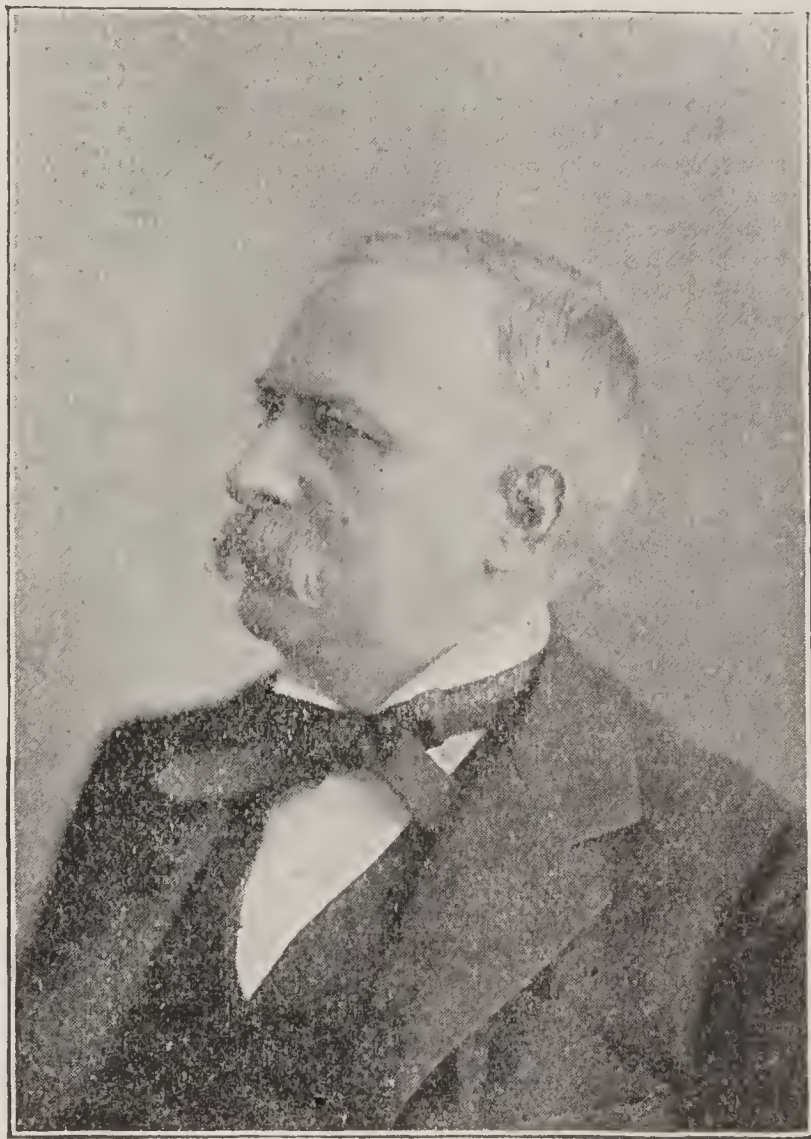
The
Joint
Resolu-
tion of
Congress

“JOINT RESOLUTION—For the recognition of the independence of the people of Cuba, demanding that the Government of Spain relinquish its authority and government in the island of Cuba, and withdraw its land and naval forces from Cuba and Cuban waters, and

directing the President of the United States to use the land and naval forces of the United States to carry these resolutions into effect.

“Whereas, the abhorrent conditions which have existed for more than three years in the island of Cuba, so near our own borders, have shocked the moral sense of the people of the United States, have been a disgrace to Christian civilization, culminating, as they have, in the destruction of a United States battleship, with two hundred and sixty-six of its officers and crew, while on a friendly visit in the harbor of Havana, and cannot longer be endured, as has been set forth by the President of the United States in his message to Congress of April 11, 1898, upon which the action of Congress was invited; therefore,

“*Resolved*, By the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,



SENATOR JOHN B. FORAKER

“1. That the people of the island of Cuba are, and of a right ought to be, free and independent.

“2. That it is the duty of the United States to demand, and the Government of the United States does hereby demand, that the Government of Spain at once relinquish its authority and government in the island of Cuba, and withdraw its land and naval forces from Cuba and Cuban waters.

“3. That the President of the United States be, and he hereby is, directed and empowered to use the entire land and naval forces of the United States, and to call into the actual service of the United

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Manly
Words

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Object of
Inter-
vention

States the militia of the several States to such an extent as may be necessary to carry these resolutions into effect.

“4. That the United States hereby disclaims any disposition or intention to exercise sovereignty, jurisdiction, or control over said island except for the pacification thereof, and asserts its determination, when that is accomplished, to leave the government and control of the island to its people.”

The President was prompt in obeying the instructions of Congress. The ultimatum to Spain was sent April 20, and consisted

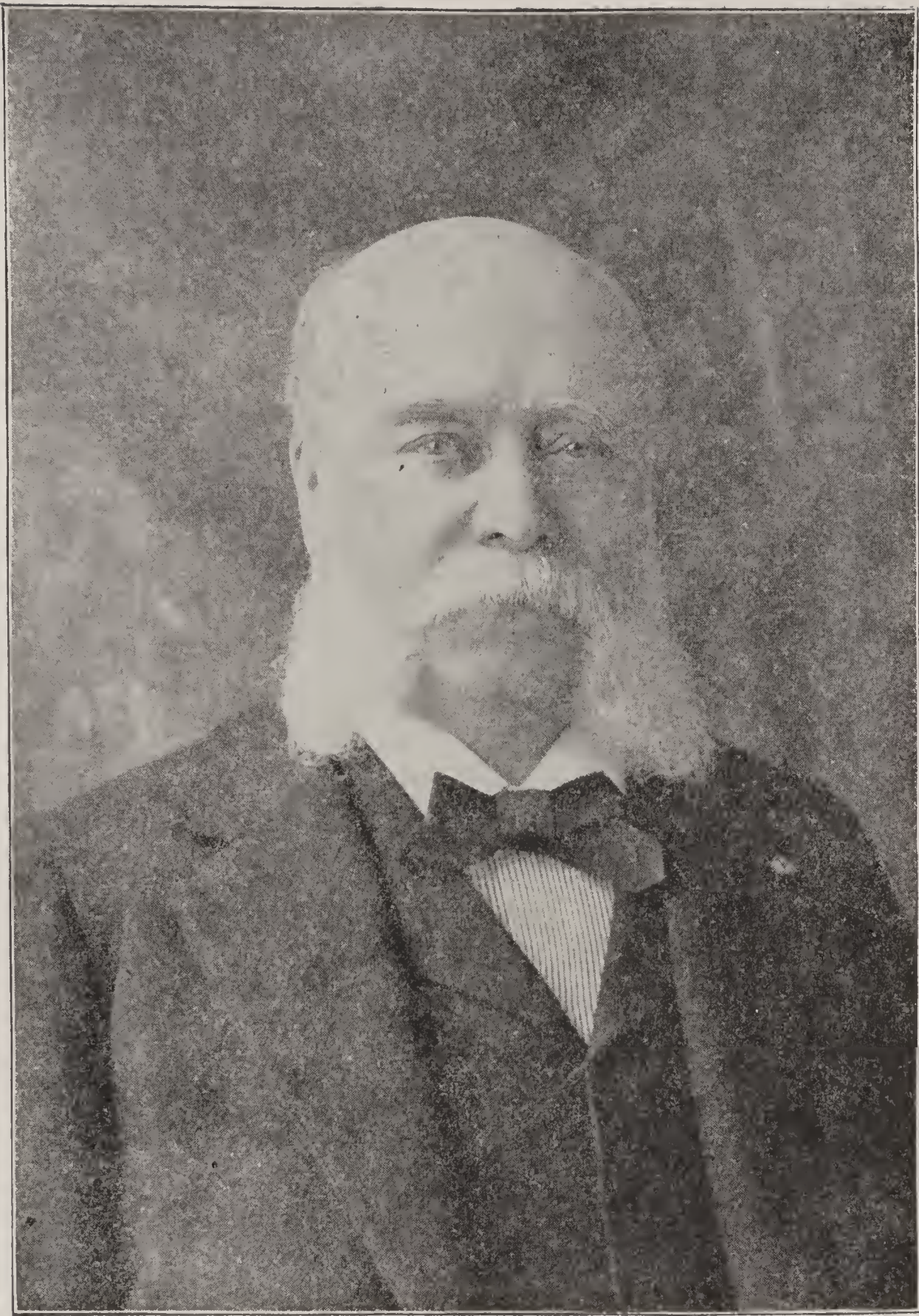


THE CHURCH OF MONSERRATE, MATANZAS

of three parts. The first explained that the United States demanded the evacuation of Cuba by the Spanish; the second, that the President had been ordered by Congress to use the land and naval forces of the United States to enforce this demand; and the third, that the President must have an answer within forty-eight hours.

Spanish
Trickery

Even at this delicate stage of proceedings, Spain indulged in a characteristic act of trickery. The President's ultimatum was sent, as is the custom in such cases, to General Stewart L. Woodford, our minister at Madrid, to be delivered by him to the authorities of the country. The contents of the cablegram were first shown to the



Wm. L. Woodford

UNITED STATES MINISTER TO SPAIN

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officials, who, after considering the matter for several hours, sent General Woodford's passports to him, thus preventing him from delivering the ultimatum, since the act deprived him of all standing at court. Our minister had only to leave the country, which, after reporting the facts to his own Government, he proceeded to do. On his way to the Spanish frontier he was subjected to insult and at

times was in personal danger. It is generally held that the returning of a foreign representative's passports is equivalent to a declaration of war against his country. At any rate, there could be no doubt in the case of General Woodford that the act was Spain's answer to our ultimatum.

Meanwhile, Señor Polo, the Spanish minister at Washington, asked for his passports (April 20), and was accompanied by several American detectives on his journey to Canada. In no instance did he suffer the least annoyance, although before



LIEUTENANT ANDREW S. ROWAN

leaving Washington he was outspoken in his denunciation of our countrymen.

The war opened on Friday, April 22, by the *Nashville's* capture of the *Buena Ventura* and the *New York's* capture of the *Pedro*. Within a few days the captured vessels numbered nearly a score, with an aggregate value of more than \$3,000,000. At night on the 25th, the large Spanish mail steamer *Montserrat*, carrying \$800,000 in silver and eighteen large guns, landed her valuable cargo and 1,000 troops at Santiago.

On April 22, the United States proclaimed a blockade of the

First
Prizes
of the
War

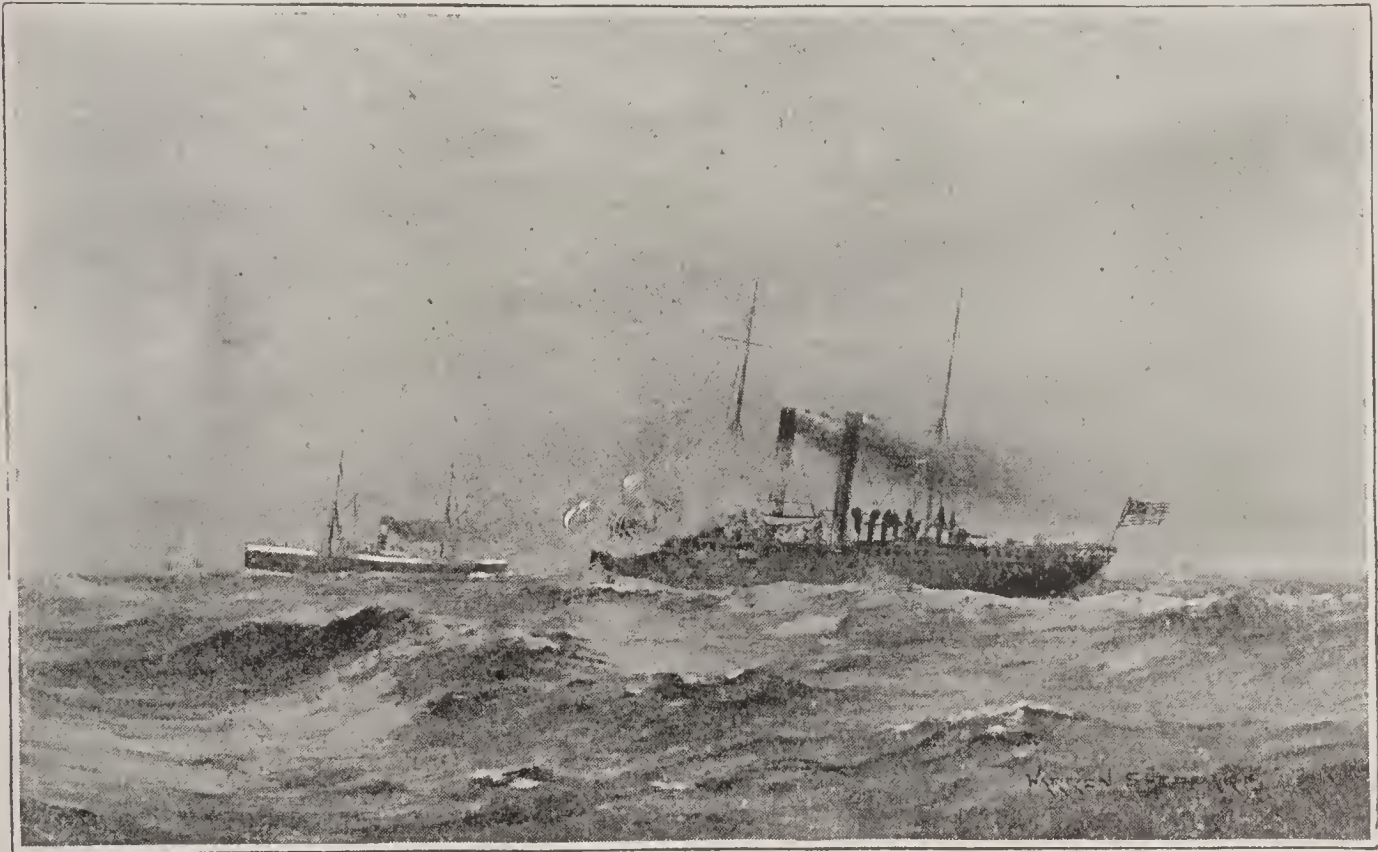
north coast of Cuba westward from Cardenas to Bahia Honda, a distance of 160 miles, of which Havana is nearly at the centre. Cienfuegos, on the south coast, was also included in the blockade.

On Sunday, April 24, Spain declared war with the United States, amid the wildest enthusiasm of all classes of people. The Queen Regent's horror of the approaching hostilities was pathetic,

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"BUENA VENTURA" CAPTURED BY THE "NASHVILLE" (FIRST PRIZE OF THE WAR)

but she was powerless to withstand the demands of the maddened populace, and the sentiments she expressed were belligerent enough to please the most ardent of Spaniards.

On April 25, the House, by a unanimous vote, declared that war was begun April 21 by Spain. This date, therefore, marks the official opening of hostilities between the two countries.

Under the authority of Act of Congress, the President, April 23, issued a call for 125,000 two-year volunteers for the army. The patriotic responses from all parts of the country proved that 1,000,000 men were anxious to defend the honor of the flag. Two days later, the respective State quotas of troops having been determined, calls were made for them, and the answer in every case was enthusiastic.

Lieutenant Andrew S. Rowan, of the Nineteenth Infantry, on April 24 landed near Santiago and penetrated the interior to meet

Call for
American
Volun-
teers

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General Garcia to perfect plans for co-operation between the Cubans and the United States forces. The following day, the Spaniards evacuated Bayamo, in the province of Santiago, which was occupied by the insurgents. Chairman Dingley reported a war revenue bill to the House (April 26), and President McKinley announced our adherence to the anti-privateering agreement of the Declaration of Paris. England published her declaration of neutrality, ordering

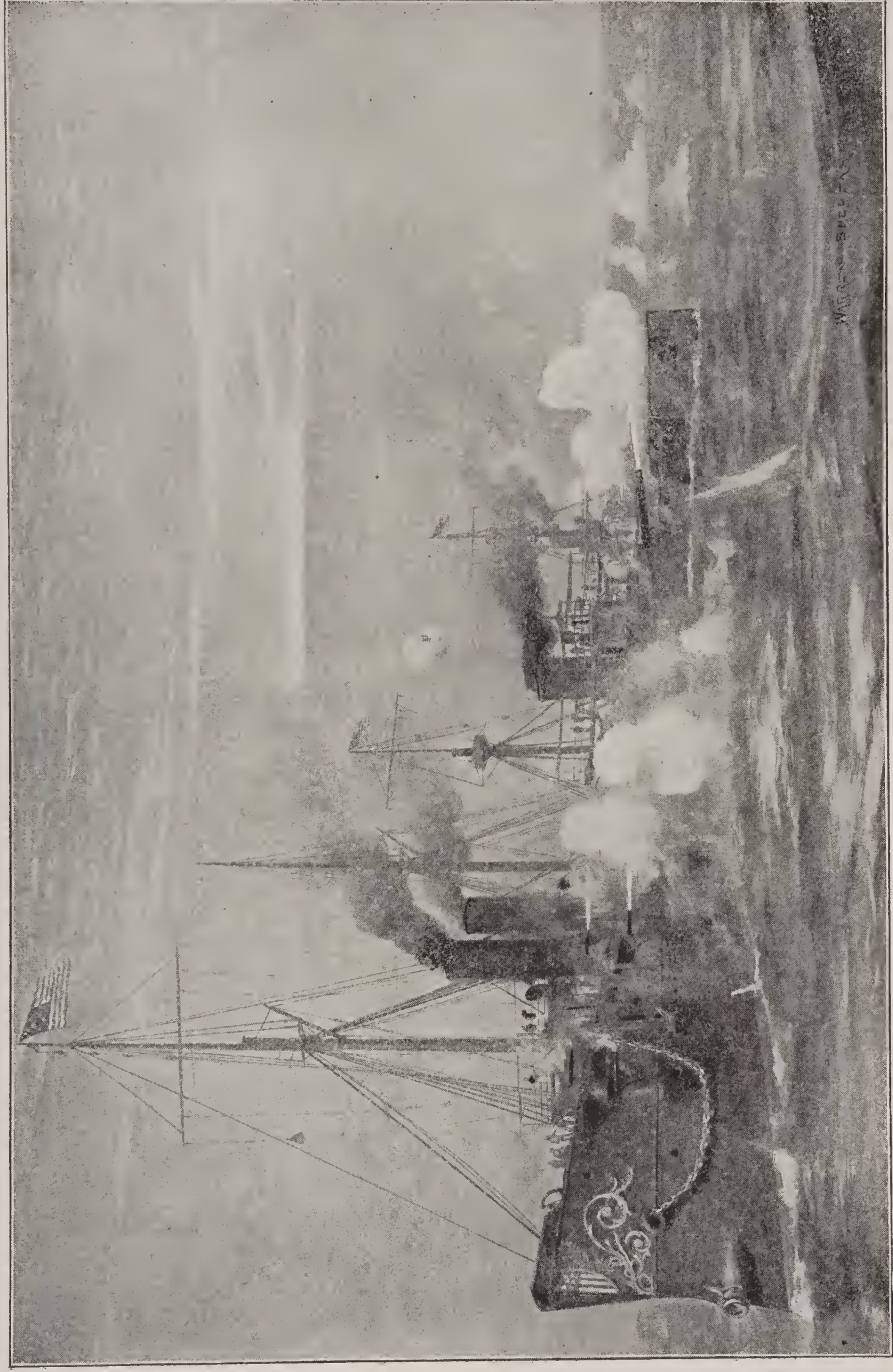


YUMURI RIVER AND ENTRANCE TO THE VALLEY, MATANZAS

our ships from her ports within forty-eight hours, and declaring that war was begun by Spain when she delivered to Minister Woodford his passports.

Eng-
land's
Friend-
ship

Spain now made an appeal to the Powers, but received no encouragement from any quarter. It is believed that Germany, France, and Austria would have been glad to hurry to her relief, but England, the mightiest naval power on the globe, sternly barred the way. Isolated though Great Britain may be, the world may well dread her wrath. Throughout the war she remained our steadfast friend, and the ties between her and the United States became so firmly fixed that it is impossible to believe they can ever be broken,



THE BOMBARDMENT OF MATANZAS

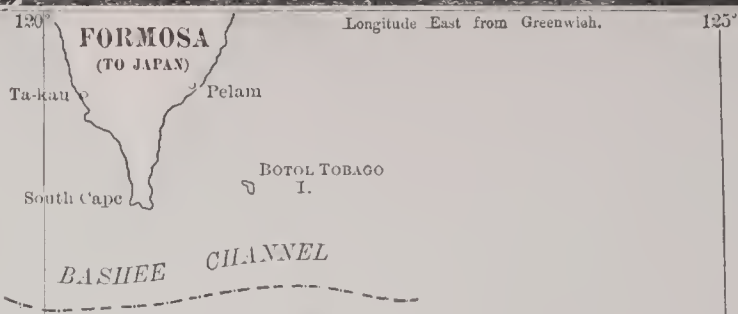
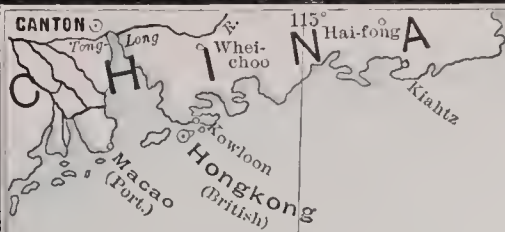
FROM THE ORIGINAL PAINTING BY WARREN SHEPPARD

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An attack was made upon the earthworks defending the bay of Matanzas (April 27) by the monitor *Puritan*, the cruiser *Cincinnati*,



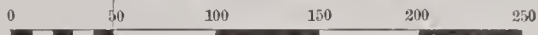
and the flagship *New York*. The works were battered and silenced, the gunnery displayed by the Americans being of astonish-



PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

SCALES.

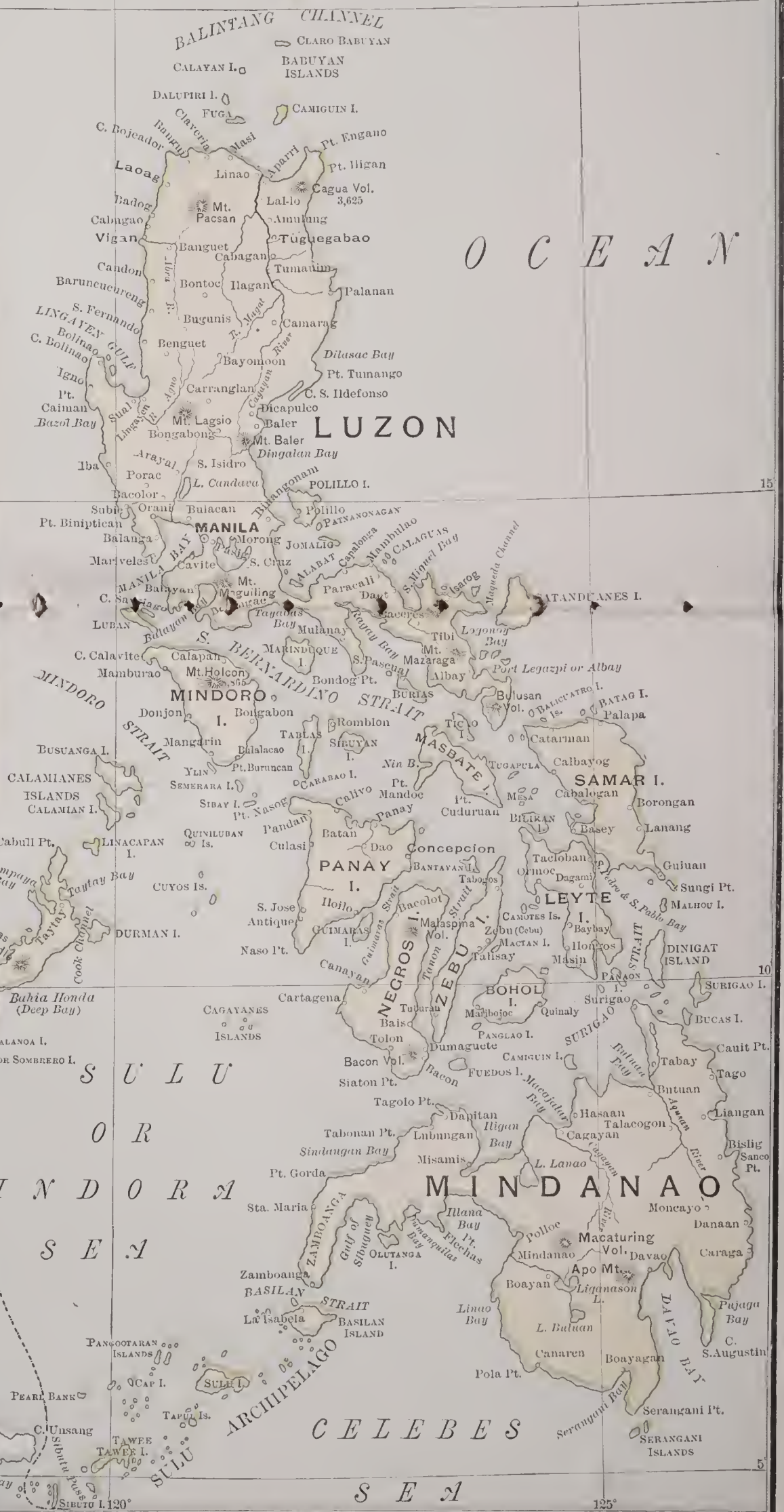
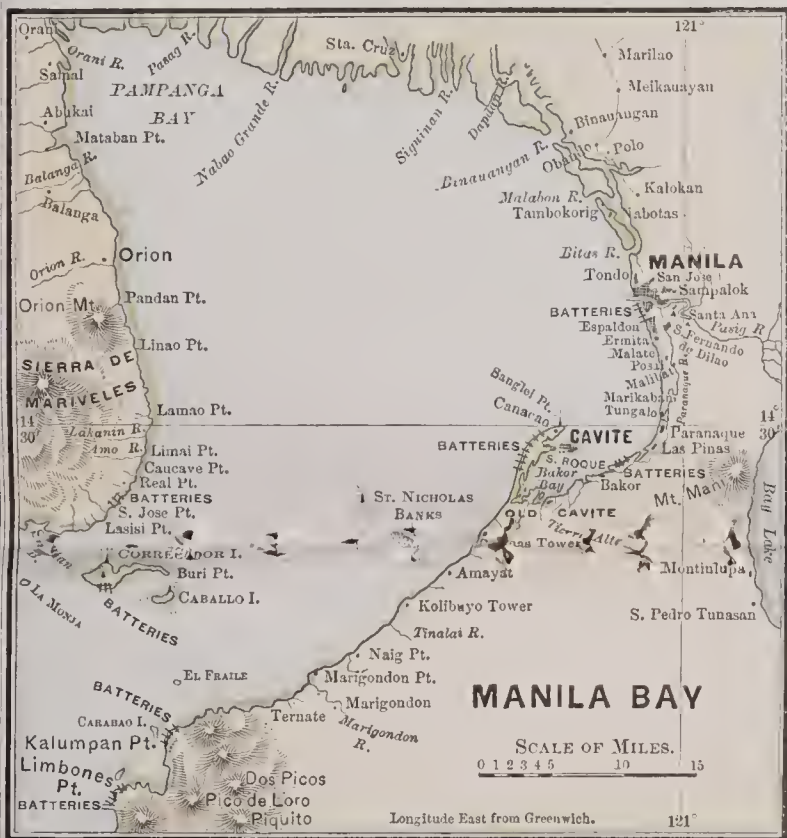
Statute Miles, 69.16 = 1 Degree.



Kilometres, 111.307 = 1 Degree.



Rand, McNally & Co.'s New 11 x 14 Map of Philippine Islands.
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ing accuracy, while that of the enemy was so poor as to excite ridicule.

On the 29th, Congress agreed to a naval appropriation bill of nearly \$47,000,000, and on the following day the House passed the bill for a popular bond issue of \$500,000,000.

There was general uneasiness regarding the Spanish fleet at the Cape Verde Islands, which had been warned to leave by the Portuguese Government as a measure of neutrality. It was a formidable squadron, consisting of the first-class cruisers *Viscaya*, *Almirante Oquendo*, *Infanta Maria Teresa*, and *Cristobal Colon*, and the three torpedo-boat destroyers, *Furor*, *Terror*, and *Pluton*. On their departure, April 29, they steamed westward, and caused much alarm in this country concerning their destination. While many believed it was Porto Rico, others feared that the ships intended to bombard some of the important sea-coast cities of the United States. This uncertainty lasted so long that the whereabouts of the Spanish fleet became one of the jests of the day.

As a consequence of England's proclamation of neutrality, Commodore George Dewey,* commanding the American squadron at Hong Kong, was compelled to leave that port, and the Government determined to delay no longer his offensive movements against the Philippine Islands, one of the richest island groups in the world, and the most valuable of Spain's possessions in the far East.

The Philippines were named in honor of Philip II., the brutal oppressor of Holland and the husband of "Bloody Mary" of England. The archipelago includes some 1,200 islands, less than one-half of

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Action
of
Congress



GENERAL AGUINALDO

Move-
ments of
Commo-
dore
Dewey

* Promoted rear-admiral May 10, 1898.

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which are habitable, and only ten or twelve are of considerable size. They lie southeast of Asia, 1,200 miles from Australia, and on a



Native Houses
in
Santa
Ana.
near
Manila



Types of the Philippine Natives.



Bridge over Pasig River

Manila.

direct line between that island and Formosa. They extend north and south through fifteen degrees of latitude, and have the same latitude

as Central America. Luzon in the north is the most important of all the islands, and has an area equal to the State of Ohio.

The next island in size is Mindanao, in the south. There is no definite knowledge of the population of the Philippines, and estimates vary from 8,000,000 to double that number. It is composed mainly of Malay tribes, including a few of the aboriginal negritos—who are negroes of dwarfish stature—many half-breeds, and numerous Chinese. Not counting the army, the pure Spaniards in the Philippines number less than 10,000.

As in Cuba, these islands of late years have been the scene of repeated revolts due to the misrule of Spain. These insurrections have been mainly the work of men of mixed Spanish and native blood, who are much more numerous than the Spaniards. Their principal leader, Pancho Aguinaldo, is a man of education and ability, and is spoken of with high regard by Admiral Dewey. He has succeeded in winning the general support of the half-civilized tribes, whose hatred of the Spaniards is as intense as that of the Cubans, and is due to the same cause.

Finding it impossible to crush the rebellion in 1897, the Spanish authorities in November of that year bought off the insurgent chiefs Aguinaldo and Alexandro for \$400,000 cash, and with a promise of the reforms that had been demanded. Then with that incomprehensible idiocy which is the most distinctive trait of Spanish diplomacy, the promises were broken, and the natives were ripe for another revolt when the American squadron appeared on the scene.

Manila, on the western coast of the island of Luzon, has long

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The
Philip-
pines



GOVERNOR-GENERAL AUGUSTIN

Spanish
Misrule

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Manila

been the capital of the Philippines, and Spain's centre of trade for the Pacific. It has a population of a quarter of a million, and stands on a landlocked sea broad enough to allow all the navies of the world to ride at anchor. It has shipped vast quantities of cigars, sugar, coffee, tobacco, hemp, rice, cocoa, mats, and cordage and cotton or mixed fabrics to all parts of the world. It contains a university conducted by the Dominican order of monks, a grand cathedral,

the magnificent residence of the governor-general, and numerous handsome dwellings.

Manila Bay has an entrance seven miles wide, and contains several islands, the largest of which are Corregidor and Caballo, standing in the opening, from which Manila lies twenty-six miles distant to the northeast. The two channels, divided by the islands at the mouth of the bay, are the Boca Grande, five miles wide, and Boca Chico, two miles across.



Manila's fortified portion was the older and official part, lying to the south, but no fortifications protected the city north of the Pasig River, which is the modern town of commerce. When the relations between Spain and the United States became strained, the Spaniards mounted a number of guns, and strengthened the shore batteries, special attention being given to those at Cavité. This town is a suburb, about ten miles nearer than Manila to the entrance of the bay, and standing on the point of a promontory.

Defences of the City

Spain knew of the danger that threatened the Philippines, and made preparations that she was confident would keep out or destroy the American fleet. Numerous mines were sunk in the harbor entrance, and torpedoes strung across both channels. The following constituted the Spanish fleet which lay in Manila harbor, under the command of Admiral Montojo, complacently awaiting the hour when

the Americans should dare to show themselves within reach of his guns :

Vessel and class.	Displace- ment, tons.	Speed, knots.	Guns, total.	Torpedo- tubes.
<i>Reina Maria Cristina</i> , steel cruiser.....	3,520	17½	21	5
<i>Castilla</i> , steel cruiser.....	3,342	14	22	2
<i>Velasco</i> , small cruiser.....	1,152	14½	7	
<i>Don Antonio de Ulloa</i> , small cruiser.....	1,130	14	13	2
<i>Don Juan de Austria</i> , small cruiser.....	1,130	14	13	
<i>Isla de Cuba</i> , small cruiser.....	1,130	16	12	3
<i>Isla de Luzon</i> , small cruiser.....	1,030	16	12	3
<i>General Lezo</i> , gun-vessel.....	524	11½	6	1
<i>El Cano</i> , gun-vessel.....	524	11½	7	1
<i>Marques del Duero</i> , despatch-boat.....	500	10		

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The
Spanish
Fleet

As a specimen of Spanish bombast, the following proclamation by General Augustin, the governor-general, is worthy of permanent record :

“The North American people, constituted of all social excrescences, have exhausted our patience and provoked war by their perfidious machinations, their acts of treachery, their outrages against the law of nations and international conventions. The struggle will be short and decisive. Spain will emerge triumphant from the new test, humiliating and blasting the hopes of the adventurers from those United States, that, without cohesion, without history, offer only infamous traditions and ungrateful spectacles in her chambers, in which appear insolence, defamation, cowardice, and cynicism. Her squadron, manned by foreigners, possesses neither instruction nor discipline.”

The American fleet, under Commodore George Dewey, consisted of six fighting vessels and three tenders, as follows : *

Vessel, class, and commander.	Displace- ment, tons.	Speed, knots.	Guns, total.	Torpedo- tubes.
<i>Olympia</i> , first-class protected cruiser, flagship, Capt. Charles V. Gridley.....	5,500	20	38	6
<i>Baltimore</i> , protected cruiser, Capt. N. M. Dyer.....	4,400	20	28	5
<i>Raleigh</i> , protected cruiser, Capt. J. B. Coghlan.....	3,183	19	25	6
<i>Boston</i> , protected cruiser, Capt. F. Wildes.....	3,189	16½	20	
<i>Concord</i> , gunboat, Commander Asa Walker.....	1,700	17	15	6
<i>Petrel</i> , gunboat, Commander E. P. Wood.....	890	13½	11	

The
Ameri-
can
Fleet

* The *armament* includes all the cannon on a ship. The *barbette* is the steel wall built up from below and enclosing the lower half or more of the revolving turret, these turrets containing the heaviest guns. A *battery* is a group of guns, or the place where they are mounted. The *conning-tower* is the armored tower at the base and forward of the steel military mast, from which, during an engagement, the commander can give his orders by means of telephones and speaking-tubes. The *displacement* of a ship is the weight in tons

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Advance
Against
Manila

It will be noted that the American fleet was superior in guns and calibre; but the advantage was far outweighed, as the Spaniards viewed it, by their shore batteries and the mines and torpedoes that their assailants would have to encounter.

Commodore Dewey with his fleet left Mirs Bay, near Hong Kong, where his ships had rendezvoused, on the afternoon of Wednesday, April 27; and just as day was breaking on the 30th, was sighted off Cape Bolinao, about a hundred miles from Manila. Steaming southward it reached Subig Bay, thirty miles from the entrance to Manila harbor, expecting to find Admiral Montojo; but he had withdrawn to the protection of the forts on shore, and Dewey followed him through the calm, moonlit night.

of the water displaced by her hull. A *Gatling-gun* is the pioneer among machine-guns, and is so named in honor of its inventor, Dr. R. J. Gatling. A *knot*, or nautical mile (6,080.27 feet), is nearly one-sixth greater than a statute mile (5,280 feet); the English omit the fraction. The *port* or larboard is the left side of a ship as one looks toward the bow; the *starboard* is the right side. A *machine-gun* is worked automatically, and fires shot and shell. *Marines* are troops enlisted for service on a warship. *Rapid-fire guns* are generally of less than six-inch calibre, for which the projectile and explosive are put up as one whole. *Great guns* have the projectile and explosive put up separately, and are of greater calibre than six inches. A *squadron* is a detachment of ships or a division of a fleet on a particular service or station; a *squadron* is often referred to as a *fleet*.

A *battleship* is heavily armored, and carries the largest guns; and in the American navy each is named for a State, the *Kearsarge* being the only exception. The average cost of a battleship is \$3,000,000, exclusive of the armament. The *cruiser* is next in fighting value to a battleship, but has greater speed, which usually exceeds eighteen knots. The *unprotected cruiser* has no armor protection in the shape of armor for her "vitals," as her engines, boilers, and magazines are termed. A water-tight deck, of moderate plating, serves as a roof for the "vitals." A *protected cruiser* has deck armor only, which presents a deflective front to shots passing through the sides and threatening the magazines. The *Olympia*, Admiral Dewey's flagship, is the best type of the protected cruiser.

The *armored cruiser* like the *New York* and *Brooklyn* is the protected cruiser improved by somewhat heavier armor on her protective deck, about her turreted guns, and the presence of a band of water-line vertical armor, three to four inches thick, on her sides just above this heavy belt, and intended as a protection to her vitals. She possesses great speed, and all the cruisers are named for American cities. The armored cruiser has been well called the cavalryman of the sea.

A *gunboat* is a small warship, usually of less than 2,000 tons. It is of light draft, and the term may mean any small boat fitted up with one or more guns. A *monitor* lies very low in the water, is heavily armored, and carries one or two revolving turrets, each with one or two guns. The first monitor was the invention of Ericsson, and defeated the Confederate iron-clad *Merrimac* in Hampton Roads, in March, 1862. A *ram* is sufficiently described by its name. Our *Katahdin* is the only vessel of that type in existence. A ship of the *first class* displaces 5,000 tons or over; of the second class, between 5,000 and 3,000 tons; of the third class, between 3,000 and 1,000 tons; of the fourth class, below 1,000 tons. These terms do not of necessity define the fighting power of a warship. A battleship of the second class might well overcome, at close quarters, one of the first class.

Long before daylight, Sunday morning, May 1, the alarm guns sounded from Corregidor Island, as the Spaniards discovered to their consternation that the fleet was passing through the southern entrance of the bay. The forts on the land side united with the cannonading on Corregidor Island, but no harm was done; and returning only a few shots, the fleet steamed uninjured past the forts, and over the mines and torpedoes directly into the harbor. The flagship *Olympia* led, with all lights obscured.

Early in the morning, the Spanish fleet was discovered off Cavité. Commodore Dewey at once ordered his squadron to close in on the land batteries at Cavité, and upon the Spanish warships; and as the haze lifted from the bay the battle opened. With that superb marksmanship never before equalled in naval warfare, the Americans poured an appalling hail of shot and shell into the doomed ships, whose return fire was exceedingly ill-directed.

Dewey ordered his ships to manœuvre continually, to disconcert the Spanish gunners, who looked to see him ground in shallow water; but the American navigating officers had learned the bay thoroughly, and their consummate seamanship saved them from any such mishap.

The fighting, which was terrific, lasted about four hours, with a lull midway while the Americans breakfasted and steamed over to the western side of the bay, and from their supply ships took on board coal and ammunition. Accepting this action as proof of defeat, the Spaniards sent exultant telegrams to Madrid, where all were thrown into an ecstasy of delight at the crushing repulse administered to the enemy.

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ADMIRAL MONTOJO OF THE SPANISH FLEET

Ameri-
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Renewal
of the
Battle

But back again grimly steamed the American warships to complete their terrible work. The rattling of the small-calibre guns, the boom of the huge rifles, the crash of the shot as it found its mark, and the roar of the exploding shells, made a pandemonium beyond the power of imagination to conceive.

Before long, the *Reina Maria Cristina*, Admiral Montojo's flagship, broke into flames, which burned so fiercely that the admiral transferred his flag to the *Isla de Cuba*. Hardly was this effected when the *Don Antonio de Ulloa* took fire; and soon afterward the *Isla de Cuba* was sunk.

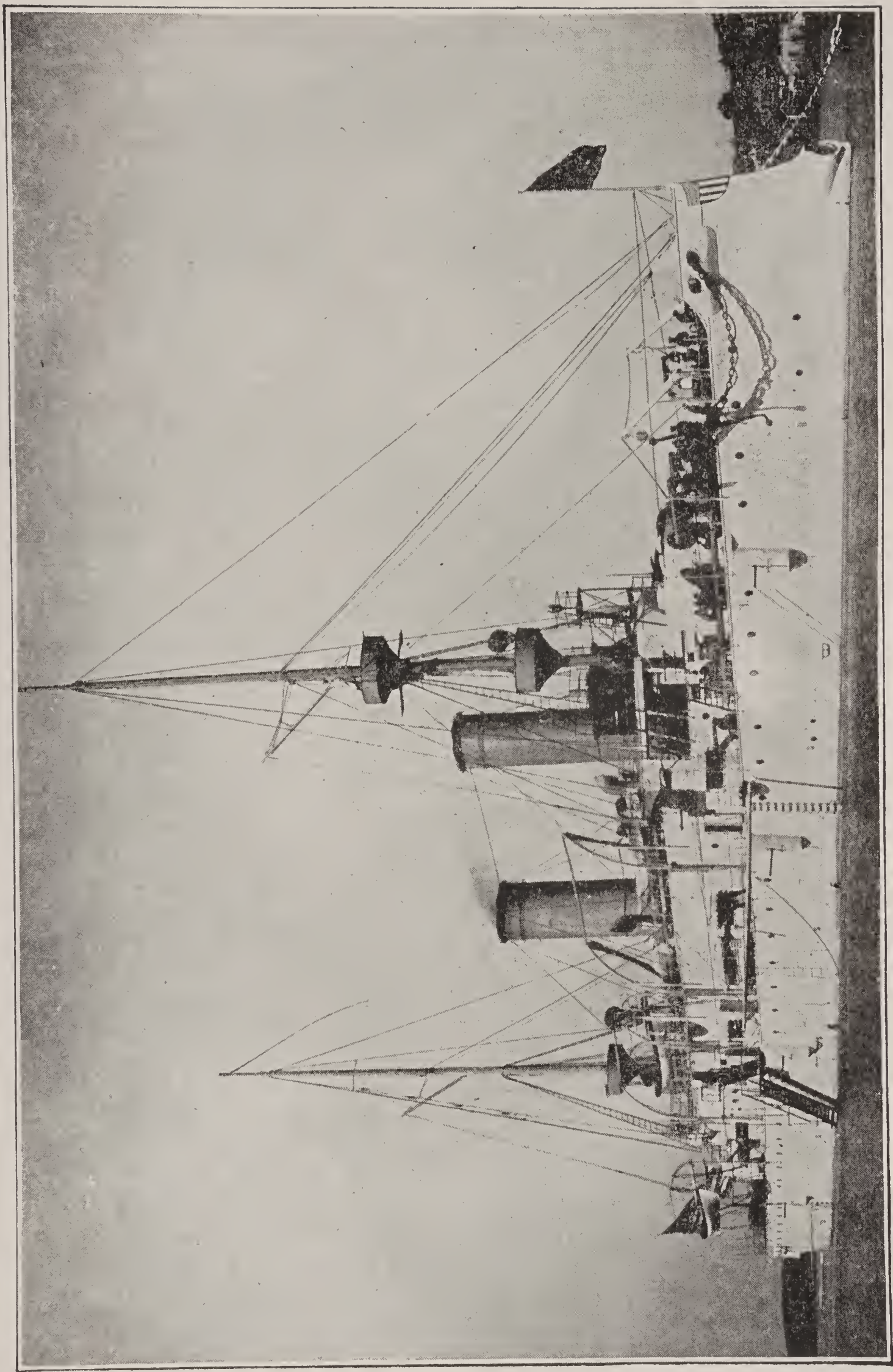
The Americans fired as coolly as if at target-practice, and it seemed as if every shot told. One after another the Spanish ships were put out of action. The guns at Cavité were used to aid the Spaniards; but their work was as ineffective as that of the warships. While fighting the latter, Dewey engaged Cavité, silenced its fire, and knocked the outer fortifications into ruins. In a short time the eleven Spanish ships were destroyed; Admiral Montojo was wounded; the captain of the *Reina Maria Christina* killed, besides more than a hundred of his crew and a number of officers. On the *Don Juan de Austria*, the captain and ninety of his men were slain; while many more Spaniards lost their lives in attempting to escape from the burning vessels. The total losses were estimated at about a thousand, while on the American side not a man was killed and only eight wounded. Two formidable submarine mines were exploded near the *Olympia*; and two of our ships were set on fire by Spanish shells, but the flames were quickly extinguished.

A
Wonder-
ful Vic-
tory

Having annihilated the fleet, Commodore Dewey concentrated his fire upon Cavité; and though it made a fine defence, it was compelled to surrender. A force was landed to occupy the place, and every possible attention was paid to the Spanish wounded.* The fortifications of Cavité were razed, and those at Corregidor Island destroyed.

Although the Commodore felt himself able to take possession of Manila whenever he chose, he deemed it more prudent to await the arrival of reinforcements from the United States. Meanwhile, he took measures to protect the Spaniards against massacre by the in-

* The following are the names of the Spanish warships destroyed: *Reina Maria Cristina*, *Castilla*, *Don Antonio de Ulloa*, *Isla de Luzon*, *Isla de Cuba*, *General Lezo*, *Marques del Duero*, *El Cano*, *Velasco*, cruisers and gunboats; *Isla de Mindanao*, transport; one other ship not named.



THE OLYMPIA, ADMIRAL DEWEY'S FLAGSHIP AT THE BATTLE OF MANILA

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surgents, who fought desperately, and steadily encroached upon the city.

Secretary Long lost no time in telegraphing the thanks of the President in the name of the American people to Commodore Dewey and his officers and men. At the same time he was notified of his appointment as acting-admiral, an honor which was soon changed by Congress into that of rear-admiral.

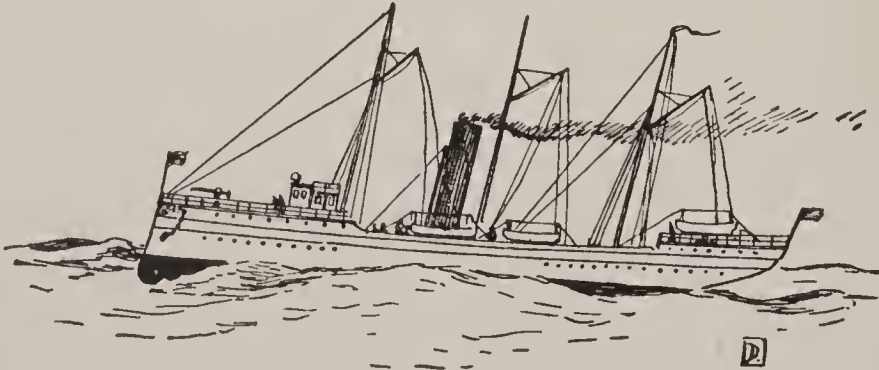
The victory of Commodore Dewey was not only brilliant in the highest degree, but surpassed in its way anything recorded in history. Indeed, it may well be pronounced a mystery beyond comprehension from the fact that while 150 men were killed on the Spanish flagship alone, and every one of the enemy's ships was destroyed, not a man, as already stated, among the Americans lost his life. The fights of the early Spanish explorers, clothed in coats of mail and using firearms, against naked savages with bows and arrows, reveal no such amazing record.

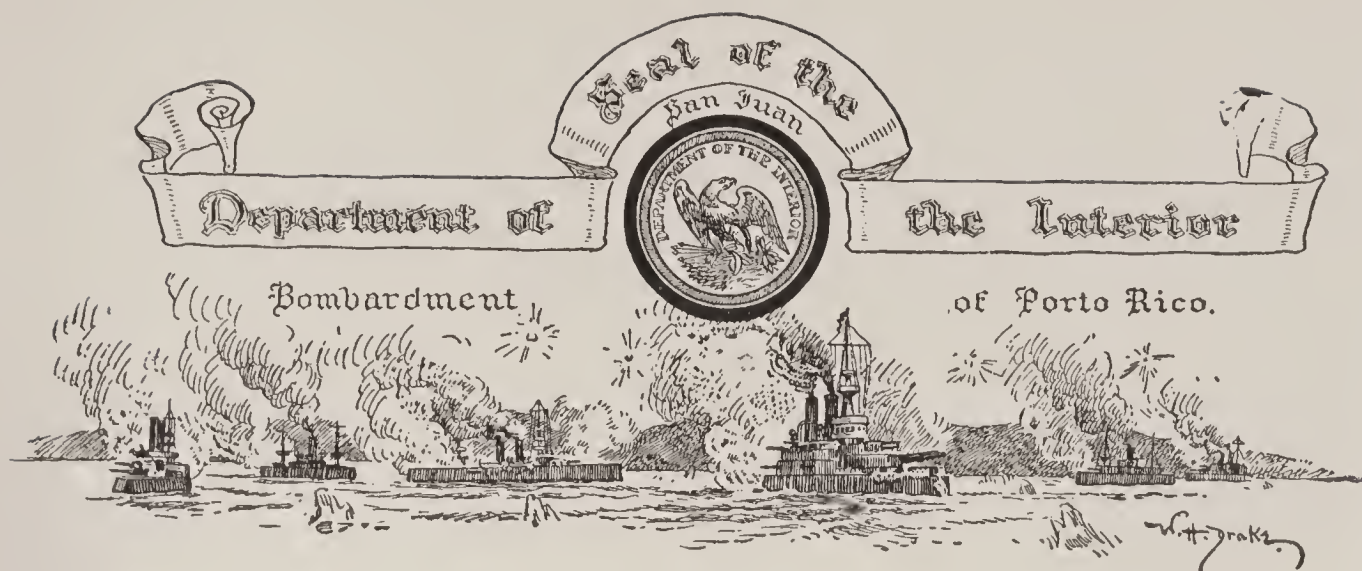
In neither of the fleets were the warships armored; nor was our superiority in the calibre of our guns or in the protection of our gunners decisive. Many of our small guns had no more protection than those of the Spaniards. It would seem that had all the latter been blindfolded, chance alone would have killed at least a score of Americans. Never was there a more impressive illustration of the truth that it is not the gun, so much as it is the man behind the gun, that helps to win battles.

The
Real
Power in
Battle

Revenue
Cutter

Hugh M^cCulloch





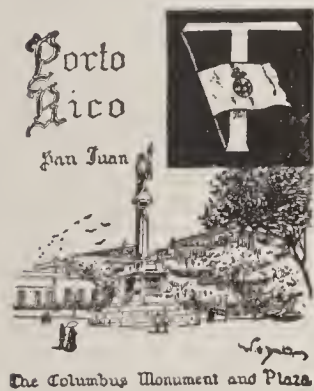
CHAPTER C

McKINLEY'S ADMINISTRATION, 1897-1901 (Continued)

OUR WAR WITH SPAIN (Continued)

Naval Operations in the West Indies

[*Authorities* : Those of our readers who are old enough to recall the events of the War for the Union have not failed to note a certain parallelism between its opening and that of our war with Spain. Hostilities in each case began at about the same time of the year, and it was not long before public impatience manifested itself over what seemed to be the tardiness of the military operations. Thirty-seven years previous the clamor "On to Richmond!" brought the overwhelming disaster of Bull Run. The delay in the spring of 1898 had no similar woful sequence, for it was of briefer duration, and the second thought of the public told them that the President, the Strategy Board, and the military and naval authorities understood the situation better than it was possible for them to understand it. The confidence reposed in the judgment of those who directed operations was fully justified by the fruitage of unexampled victory and triumphs, and was another impressive enforcement of the truth that in many situations in life, the safest course is to make haste slowly, or, in other words, to know the ground thoroughly before venturing upon it. The authorities are of the same nature as those already named.]



THE war preparations of our Government were pushed without cessation. The recruits of the various State camps were forwarded to Chickamauga, Tampa, and other points, preparatory to the invasion of Cuba, which it was confidently believed would be soon made.* The President made a number of nominations for major- and brigadier-generals, all of which were promptly confirmed by the Senate. Among these were Fitzhugh Lee and Joseph H. Wheeler, the famous Confeder-

* The formal declaration of war in 1812 was embodied in the act of June 18 of that year, and the first hostilities occurred on July 17. A skirmish on April 25, 1846, preceded our declaration of war against Mexico, which was made May 9. There was fighting between France and the United States in 1798, and for several years following,

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Fitzhugh Lee - Maj. Gen. Comd'g: 7th Corps -

but no declaration of war, peace being restored February 3, 1801, by a formal treaty. As already stated, Congress decided on the 25th of April, 1898, that war with Spain had begun on the 21st of that month. The Naval War Board, to which the important naval operations were referred, consisted of Admiral Sicard, Captain Mahan (retired), Captain Crowninshield, chief of the Bureau of Navigation, with Lieut. Alphonso H. Cobb (retired) as secretary.

ate cavalry leaders, who were made major-generals. One of the beneficent results of our war with Spain was the final cementing of the union between the North and South. While there was less demonstration in the latter section, the people could not have been more ardent in their patriotism, and the mingling of the veterans who wore the blue and those who wore the gray was perfect and absolute.

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Union of
the Blue
and Gray

It should be added that the war was the most popular in which our country has ever engaged. It was eagerly advocated everywhere, and it has been shown that it was as easy to obtain a million as a hundred thousand recruits for our army. The reason for this was that it was not solely a war of conquest, but one that appealed to the noblest instincts of humanity.

The invasion of Cuba was delayed by uncertainty regarding the movements of the Spanish fleet. The uneasiness as to its whereabouts and destination continued, and there was alarm in Boston, New York, and other leading cities over a visit from the warships, while rumors were plentiful that it intended to bombard many of the seaboard towns. The pressing necessity, therefore, was to meet and destroy the hostile ships before they could cross the Atlantic. Moreover, there would be great risk in sending transports, loaded with troops to Cuba, where they would be subject to annihilation by Admiral Cervera, the commander of the Spanish fleet. On the 4th of May, the fighting ships of Admiral Sampson sailed from Key West in search of the enemy. Eight days later news was received that the Spanish Cape Verde squadron had arrived at Martinique, West Indies.

It was on this day that the first lives were lost on the American side. The gunboat *Wilmington*, the torpedo-boat *Winslow*, and the auxiliary gunboat *Hudson* were attacked in Cardenas Bay by Spanish gunboats and batteries. They shelled the town and withdrew, Ensign Bagley and four of the crew of the *Winslow* being killed.

The
"Wins-
low"
Affair

Ensign Worth Bagley, the executive officer of the *Winslow*, was born in North Carolina in 1874, and was graduated from the Naval Academy in June, 1895. Brief as was his service, he proved his daring, coolness, and judgment. He was a great athlete, filling brilliantly the position of full-back on the football team. He was deeply religious, and devotedly attached to his mother. Indeed, he was so admirable a type of the physical and moral material of which

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our navy is mainly composed that we cannot forbear quoting from one of the last letters he ever wrote, which was addressed to his mother:

"You need have no fear for me, for there is no danger now. There may be when the Spanish fleet comes, but I am sorry to say I fear that will never be. A war comes only once in a generation, and it will be very hard if I can get no chance to do some unusual



FIGHT OF THE "WINSLOW"—DEATH OF ENSIGN BAGLEY

A
Noble
Son

service, so it is very disappointing to have no tangible enemy to meet. You are a brave mother, so you must feel like I do whenever we are engaged in anything at all dangerous—enjoy the excitement, feel that, but nothing more. Thank Heaven, I have found I have no fear; for I have analyzed all my feelings in danger. Don't repeat that, for it would be a boast to any one but you. Your last letter made me feel so happy, and I feel so proud to receive your praise; to feel that never have I 'given you an hour's trouble or unhappiness.' To hear you say that, dear angel, is more to me than any ambition in this world.

"Do you ever think that I have no heart to love because I follow a profession that keeps me nearly always away from you? I know that you never do feel so, for you know that I love you. Some-

times I remember and think of how you used to love to have us children tell you how much we loved you, and how you used to wonder why I hardly ever petted you. When I am away it is so easy to write my thoughts to you as they come, and tell you how I yearn to be with you. But when with you, it is my reverence for you that keeps me back, quiet but (even if I do say it) waiting to serve you, not as a return, but in appreciation of the tender loving care and the hard sacrifices that not till late (years too late) have I understood; I can, indeed, my mother, 'rise up and call you blessed.'

"Good-by for a short space. This letter is hurried, for there is a great deal that I must do.—Love to every one.—Good-by for a few days."

Lieutenant Bernadou was commander of the *Winslow*, in the lamentable occurrence mentioned. In a letter written to Mr. W. H. Bagley, brother of the fallen hero, he gives the following description of the death of the ensign:

"Your brother died instantly. I was standing about ten feet from him when he fell, and immediately ran to him. A glance conveyed the impression that life was extinct, but a minute's observation confirmed the impression. A hasty examination of his wounds showed me that there was nothing to be done to save him. His face was composed; I do not believe that he suffered. The remains were immediately removed to the most protected spot and covered. Directly after the fight I signalled to the *Wilmington*: 'Send boat with doctor, many killed and wounded'; and upon transferring those that were injured, I took your brother's body with me and saw it placed upon the quarter-deck and covered with the flag, before having my own wound dressed.



Worth Bagley.

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Lieuten-
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Berna-
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Account

“Your brother fell at the end of the action. Injuries to the machinery and steering-gear made the boat almost unmanageable. As I found that we were working out from under the enemy's batteries by alternately backing and going ahead with the one remaining engine, and as mechanical communication with the engine-room was cut off, I directed him to watch the movement of the vessel; to keep her out of the *Wilmington's* line of fire; to watch the man at the reversing gear below and see that he obeyed orders. This necessitated your brother making repeated short trips from the deck to the engine-room ladder. On the conclusion of one of these trips, he had stopped for a moment on deck, presumably to watch the effect of our (the *Wilmington's*) fire, which was silencing the enemy. He came up to where I was standing, near the compass forward, and said: ‘Captain, I'm sorry you're wounded; I'm lucky in these things.’ I replied: ‘Well, old man, we've been in a fight this time for sure.’ He said: ‘Shake’; and we shook hands and looked one another full in the eyes. A moment later was a quick explosion,—a short snap like the report of a pistol; your brother and two men fell dead and two were mortally wounded.”

Bom-
bardment
of San
Juan

General instructions had been issued to the American warships not to fire upon Spanish forts unless first attacked, it being desired to preserve our great fighting machines uninjured for the expected naval battle. Our blockading squadron longed for a chance to exchange shots with some of the batteries on shore, but did not often gain the opportunity. At daylight, May 13, the American squadron appeared outside the harbor of San Juan, the capital of Porto Rico, when the Morro Castle, the fort at the entrance of the harbor, fired a shot at the flagship *Iowa*. A fight at once opened, the *Indiana*, *Amphitrite*, and *Terror* joining the *New York* in the attack. The marksmanship of the Americans was excellent; but some of the shells passed over the fort into the city, did great damage, and inflicted considerable loss of life. In a short time the fortifications were battered into ruins. The aim of the Spaniards was so poor that among the Americans there were only two killed and six wounded, while the squadron itself suffered no injury.

Meanwhile, our fleet was assiduously hunting that of the enemy, and it was difficult to follow the movements of either. Commodore Schley sailed under secret orders on the 13th of May from Hampton Roads, the Spanish fleet being reported the next day at Curaçao, off



BOMBARDMENT OF SAN JUAN, PORTO RICO

FROM THE ORIGINAL PAINTING BY WARREN SHEPPARD

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Cervera's
Fleet at
Santiago

the Venezuelan coast, with Admiral Sampson off Puerto Plata, Haiti.

The next report of the hostile squadron was that it had reached Santiago de Cuba. Then came the news, hardly credited at first, that it had entered that harbor, where it was bottled up by the American fleet. On the 29th, five days later, Commodore Schley reported having seen some of the Spanish ships in the harbor, and the news was soon confirmed. The dreaded fleet that had caused so much alarm along our coast was in the harbor of Santiago, and, so long as it could be held there, was powerless to inflict harm.

The fear was that on some dark night, or during a violent storm when our own ships were compelled to keep farther than usual from shore, the fleet would make a sudden dash and escape. It consisted of the four armored cruisers *Infanta Maria Teresa*, *Vizcaya*, *Almirante Oquendo*, and *Cristobal Colon*, and the torpedo-boat destroyers *Pluton* and *Furor*. All belonged to the best types of their class, the cruisers being of 7,000 tons displacement, with the exception of the *Cristobal Colon*, which was slightly less. Every one had a speed of 20 knots, and the four carried 130 guns and 28 torpedo-tubes.

The probability of the Spanish fleet slipping out and escaping caused Admiral Sampson much concern; but there seemed to be no way of removing the danger, until Naval Constructor Richmond Pearson Hobson asked an audience with the Admiral. Hobson is a native of Alabama, twenty-seven years old, and was graduated from the Naval Academy in 1889, and later studied naval construction abroad.

A
Daring
Scheme

The young man lost no time in laying before the Admiral his plan for locking in the enemy's fleet, so that only one or two American ships need remain on guard, leaving the rest free to do duty elsewhere. His scheme was to select a crew just sufficient to navigate the collier *Merrimac*, strip the old craft of everything of value, and then, shielded by the darkness, run her into the narrowest part of the channel and sink her. As she went down, the crew were to jump overboard, to be picked up, if possible, by the torpedo-boat *Porter*, or by the steam launch of the *New York*, which was to run in as closely as it dared for that purpose, the craft being covered by the fleet outside.

Lieutenant Hobson, like the brave man he is, offered to lead the expedition, and his words were so persuasive that the consent of the



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LIEUTENANT RICHMOND PEARSON HOBSON

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Admiral was won. Wednesday night, June 1, was selected for the venture. That afternoon the *New York* signalled to the ships of the squadron:

“An attempt will be made to-night to sink the collier *Merrimac* at the entrance to the harbor. One man, a volunteer, is requested from each ship.”

Prepara-
tions
for the
Attempt

That nothing in all the world is so attractive to an American as a perilous duty was proven by what immediately followed. Although the chances were overwhelmingly against a single man coming out of the venture alive, it may be said that all the companies of all the ships volunteered for the dangerous work, and many vehemently clamored for the privilege. On the *Brooklyn* alone, 150 of the crew begged to be accepted as volunteers, and about the same number on the *Texas* were equally strenuous. The difficulty was in the selection of the small crew required; and when effected it was as follows:

Lieutenant Hobson; Gunner's Mate Philip O'Boyle, of the *Texas*; Gun Captain Mill, of the *New Orleans*; Seaman Anderson, of the *Massachusetts*, and Seaman Wade, of the *Vixen*.

Coal was removed from the *Merrimac* until only enough for ballast remained in her hold; and the soggy craft was taken to a point 20 miles east of Santiago, where the work of stripping her was begun. Late in the afternoon the *Vixen* called on each ship and took off its volunteer, and placed them on board the flagship *New York*. The squadron moved close to the entrance of the harbor, and no one doubted that in a few hours the attempt would be made. There was so much work, however, to be done on the *Merrimac* that the preparations could not be completed in time, and the night of June 3 was fixed upon for the attempt.

A Keen
Disap-
point-
ment

Now came the keenest of all disappointments to the volunteers. It was a wise, but none the less a hard decision that these heroes had been held on edge so long that their nerves must have felt the strain, and that possibly they were unfitted for the duty in which coolness and complete self-possession were indispensable. Accordingly the originals, denouncing their bad luck, were returned to their respective ships, and a new selection was made:

Lieut. RICHMOND PEARSON HOBSON, Assistant Naval Constructor.
OSBORN DEIGNAN, a coxswain of the *Merrimac*.

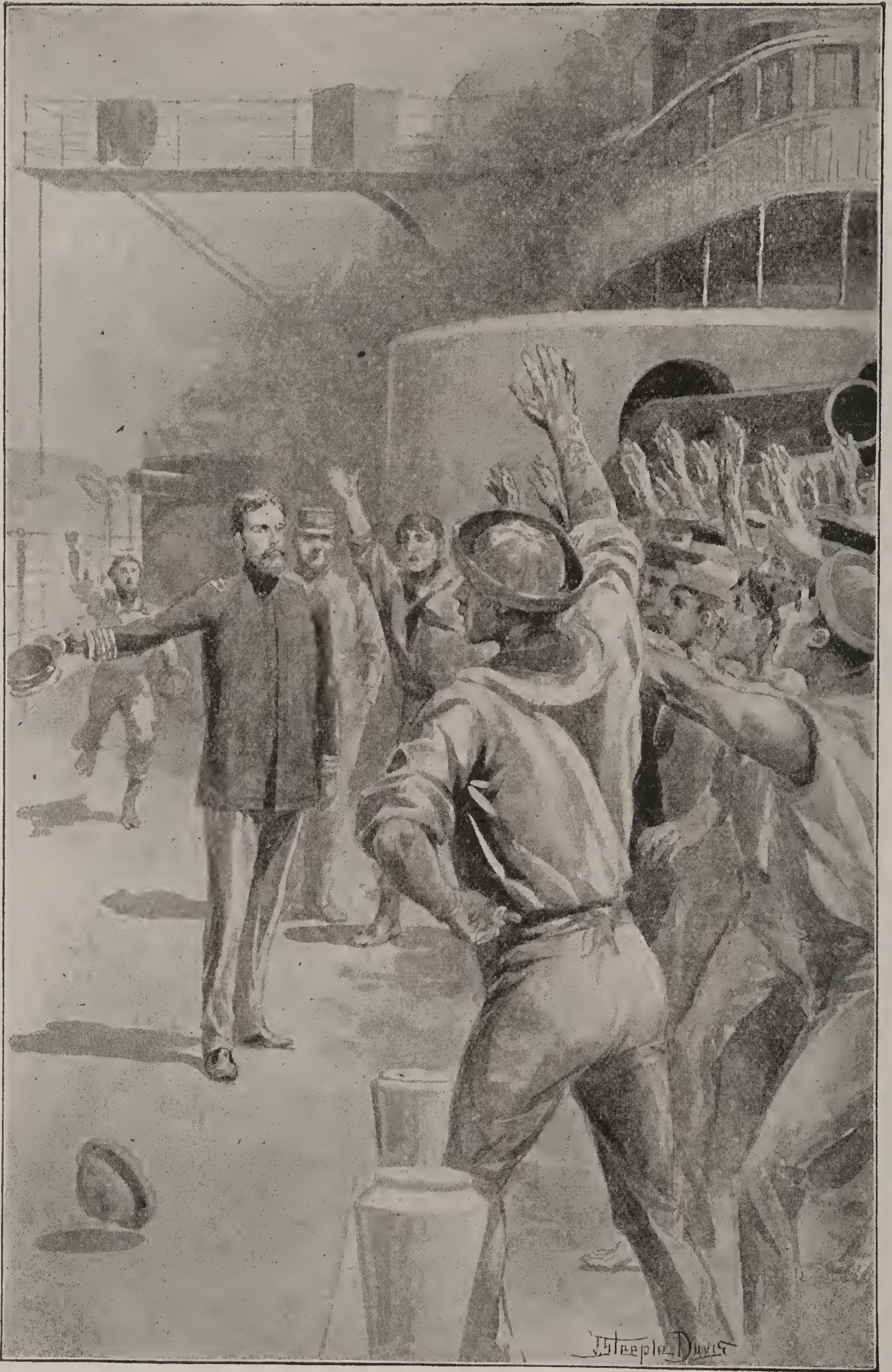
GEORGE F. PHILLIPS, a machinist of the *Merrimac*.

JOHN KELLY, a water-tender of the *Merrimac*.
GEORGE CHARETTE, a gunner's mate of the flagship *New York*.
DANIEL MONTAGUE, a seaman of the cruiser *Brooklyn*.
J. C. MURPHY, a coxswain of the *Iowa*.
RANDOLPH CLAUSEN, a coxswain of the *New York*.
Clausen was not one of the men selected for duty. He was at work on the *Merrimac*, when all except the seven volunteers were ordered to leave and go aboard the flagship. He refused to go, and thus secured a place for his name on the roll of fame.
As the afternoon was drawing to a close, the fleet assumed a new formation, ordered by Admiral Sampson, which, beginning westward, was: *Vixen*, *Brooklyn*, *Marblehead*, *Texas*, *Massachusetts*, *Oregon*, *Iowa*, *New York*, *New Orleans*, and *Mayflower*. Outside of this circle were the colliers, cable, and supply boats, with the *Dolphin* and *Porter* acting as despatch-boats.
The night was calm and soft, with the full moon shining upon the unruffled sea and clothing the grim mountains in fleecy silver. Far away on the hillsides gleamed the lights of the villages around Santiago, and the single searchlight of the Morro lighthouse sent its glowing fan out upon the waters. But on the decks of the massive warships everything wore an appearance of expectancy. The men lay on the decks, with their guns and small arms at their sides, taking turns in sleeping two hours at a time.
Between two and three o'clock, with the moon partly obscured, the crew of the *Merrimac* was sent aboard the *Texas*, and the eight who remained steamed toward the western shore of the harbor entrance, with the launch of the *New York* closely following in command of Naval Cadet Joseph Wright Powell, of Oswego, N. Y., with four men—Coxswain Peterson, Fireman Horsman, Engineer Nelson, and Seaman Peterson, the launch halting and lying close to the western shore.
The crews of the American warships, who were peering with breathless interest into the gloom, saw the flash of a single gun on Morro Castle, though the report could not be heard. A few minutes later the shore broke into sheets of flame, and it looked as if every gun in the batteries had been turned upon the *Merrimac*. The cumbersome craft, 330 feet in length, seemed to bear a charmed life, for, apparently uninjured, she moved straight ahead to the narrowest part of the channel, which was about 400 feet wide.

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The
Heroes

A
Stirring
Scene



THE MERRIMAC VOLUNTEERS

FROM THE ORIGINAL DRAWING BY J. STEEPLE DAVIS

In order to complete our account of this remarkable exploit, we give in this place the story told by Lieutenant Hobson himself, after his exchange and return to his friends. His narrative is absorbingly interesting:

“It was dark when we started in toward the strait,” said Lieutenant Hobson, “and it was darker when we got the ship into position. We all knew that we were taking desperate chances, and in order to be unencumbered when we got into the water we stripped down to our underclothing. The ship gave a heave when the charges exploded, and as she sank with a lurch at the bow we got over her sides. That we got into the water is nearly all we know of what happened in that rather brief period. Some sprang over the ship’s sides, but more than one of us was thrown over the rail by the shock and the lurching of the ship.

“It was our plan to escape on a catamaran float which lay on the roof of the midship-house. One of the greatest dangers of the thing was that of being caught in the suction made by the ship as she went down; so we tied the float to the taffrail, giving it slack line enough, as we thought, to let it float loose after the ship had settled into her resting-place. I swam away from the ship as soon as I struck the water, but I could feel the eddies drawing me backwards in spite of all I could do. That did not last very long, however, and as soon as I felt the tugging ease I turned and struck out for the float, which I could see dimly bobbing up and down over the sunken hull.

“The *Merrimac’s* masts were plainly visible, and I could see the heads of my seven men as they followed my example and made for the float also. We had expected, of course, that the Spaniards would investigate the wreck, but we had no idea that they would be at it as quickly as they were. Before we could get to the float several row-boats and launches came around the bluff from inside the harbor. They had officers on board and armed marines as well, and they searched that passage, rowing backward and forward, until the next morning. It was only by good luck that we got to the float at all, for they were upon us so quickly that we had barely concealed ourselves when a boat with quite a large party on board was right beside us.

“Unfortunately, we thought then, but it turned out afterward that nothing more fortunate than that could have happened to us, the

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—
OUR
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Lieuten-
ant Hob-
son’s
Account

In
Hiding



THE SINKING OF THE MERRIMAC

FROM THE ORIGINAL PAINTING BY WARREN SHEPPARD

rope with which we had secured the float to the ship was too short to allow it to swing free, and when we reached it we found that one of the pontoons was entirely out of the water and the other one was submerged. Had the raft lain flat on the water we could not have got under it, and would have had to climb up on it, to be an excellent target for the first party of marines that arrived. As it was, we could get under the raft, and by putting our hands through the

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SANTIAGO FROM THE HARBOR

crevices between the slats which formed its deck we could hold our heads out of water and still be unseen. That is what we did; and all night long we stayed there with our noses and mouths barely out of water.

“None of us expected to get out of the affair alive, but luckily the Spaniards did not think of the apparently damaged, half-sunken raft floating about beside the wreck. They came to within a cable’s length of us at intervals of only a few minutes all night. We could hear their words distinctly, and even in the darkness could distinguish an occasional glint of light on the rifle-barrels of the marines and on the lace of the officers’ uniforms. We were afraid to speak

A
Dismal
Situa-
tion

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above a whisper, and for a good while—in fact, whenever they were near us—we breathed as easily as we could. I ordered my men not to speak unless to address me, and with one exception they obeyed.

“After we had been there an hour or two, the water, which we found rather warm at first, began to get cold, and my fingers ached where the wood was pressing into them. The clouds, which were running before a pretty stiff breeze when we went in, blew over, and then by the starlight we could see the boats when they came out of the shadows of the cliffs on either side; and even when we could not see them we knew that they were still near, because we could hear very plainly the splash of the oars and the grinding of the oarlocks.

Enemies
at Hand

“Our teeth began to chatter before very long, and I was in constant fear that the Spaniards would hear us when they came close. It was so still then that the chattering sound seemed to us as loud as a hammer; but the Spaniards’ ears were not sharp enough to hear it. We could hear sounds from the shore almost as distinctly as if we had been there, we were so close to the surface of the water, which is an excellent conductor, and the voices of the men in the boats sounded as clear as a bell. My men tried to keep their teeth still, but it was hard work, and not attended with any great success at the best.

Almost
Discov-
ered

“We all knew that we would be shot if discovered by an ordinary seaman or a marine, and I ordered my men not to stir, as the boats having officers on board kept well in the distance. One of my men disobeyed my orders, and started to swim ashore, and I had to call him back. He obeyed at once, but my voice seemed to create some commotion among the boats, and several of them appeared close beside us before the disturbance in the water made by the man swimming had disappeared. We thought it was all up with us then; but the boats went away into the shadows again.

“There was much speculating among the Spaniards as to what the ship was and what we intended to do next. I could understand many of the words, and gathered from what I heard that the officers had taken in the situation at once, but were astounded at the audacity of the thing. The boats, I also learned, were from the fleet, and I felt better, because I had more faith in a Spanish sailor than I had in a Spanish soldier.

“When daylight came a steam launch full of officers and marines

came out from behind the cliff that hid the fleet and harbor, and advanced toward us. All the men on board were looking curiously in our direction. They did not see us. Knowing that some one of rank must be on board, I waited until the launch was quite close and hailed her.

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“My voice produced the utmost consternation on board. Every one sprang up, the marines crowded to the bow, and the launch’s engines were reversed. She not only stopped, but she backed off until nearly a quarter of a mile away, where she stayed. The marines stood ready to fire at the word of command, when we clambered out from under the float. There were ten of the marines, and they would have fired in a minute had they not been restrained.

“I swam toward the launch, and then she started toward me. I called out in Spanish: ‘Is there an officer on board?’ An officer answered in the affirmative; and then I shouted in Spanish again: ‘I have seven men to surrender.’ I continued swimming, and when I reached the side of the launch I was seized and pulled out of the water.

The Sur-
render

“As I looked up when they were dragging me into the launch, I saw that it was Admiral Cervera himself who had hold of me. He looked at me rather dubiously at first, because I had been down in the engine-room of the *Merrimac*, where I got covered with oil, and that with the soot and coal-dust made my appearance most disreputable. I had put on my officer’s belt before sinking the *Merrimac*, as a means of identification no matter what happened to me, and when I pointed to it in the launch the Admiral understood and seemed satisfied. The first words he said to me when he learned who I was were ‘*Bienvenido sea usted,*’ which means, ‘You are welcome.’ My treatment by the naval officers, and that of my men also, was courteous all the time that I was a prisoner. They heard my story, as much of it as I could tell, but sought to learn nothing more.

A
Chival-
rous Foe

“My men were rescued from the float, and we were taken to the shore, and we were all placed in a cell in Morro Castle. I asked permission to send a note to Admiral Sampson, and wrote it; but when Admiral Cervera learned of it he came to me and said that General Linares would not permit me to send it. The Admiral seemed greatly worried; but it was not until a day or two later that I learned what was on his mind. That same day he said he would send a boat to the fleet to get clothes for us, and that the men who went in the

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boat could tell Admiral Sampson that we were safe. I learned later that General Linares was inclined to be ugly, and that Admiral Cervera wished to get word to our fleet as soon as possible that we were safe, knowing that then General Linares would learn that the fleet knew it, and he would not dare to harm us.

“When we were first placed in Morro the solid doors to our cells were kept closed for an hour or two; but when we objected to that



SANTIAGO FROM THE HILLS BACK OF THE CITY

**Confined
in Morro**

the Admiral ordered that they be thrown open. Then we had a view of Santiago harbor, the city, and the Spanish fleet. All of the officers of the army and fleet called on us that day, and their treatment of us was most considerate and courteous. General Linares did not call, but sent word that, as all the others had called, he thought that a visit from him was not included in his duties. I do not know what he meant by that, but am sure that we do not owe our safety to him.

“We were still in Morro Castle when Admiral Sampson’s fleet bombarded Santiago. The windows in the side of our cell opened west across the harbor entrance, and we could hear and see the shells as they struck. We knew that we would not be fired upon, as word had gone out as to where we were, so we sat at the windows and

watched the shells. Each one sung a different tune as it went by. The smaller shells moaned or screeched as they passed, but the thirteen-inch shells left a sound behind them like that of the sudden and continued smashing of a huge pane of glass. The crackling was sharp and metallic, something like sharp thunder without the roar, and the sound continued, but decreased after the shell had gone. In many cases the shells struck projecting points of rock, and, ricochetting, spun end over end across the hills. The sound they made as they struck again and again was like the short, sharp puffs of a locomotive starting with a heavy train.

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TO
—

Grim
Music

“We were in Morro Castle four days, and only once did I feel alarmed. The day before we were taken into the city of Santiago I saw a small boat start from the harbor with a flag of truce up. When I asked one of the sentries what it meant, I was told that the boat had gone out to tell our fleet that my men and I had already been taken into the city. Then I feared that Morro would be bombarded at once, and believed it to be a scheme got up by General Linares to end us. We were taken to the city the next day, and were safe anyway then.

“In the city we were treated with the same consideration by the naval officers and the army officers, with the exception of General Linares, which we got on the day of our capture. I believe that we owe to Admiral Cervera our exchange, and a great deal more in the way of good treatment that we would not otherwise have received. General Linares had no good blood for us, nor did the soldiers and marines, who would have shot us on sight the night that we went into the harbor.

“We did not have time to think of sharks. We saw a great many things, though, and went through a great many experiences. When we started out from the fleet I tied to my belt a flask of medicated water, supplied to me by my ship’s surgeon. The frequency with which we all felt thirsty on the short run into the passage, and the dryness of my mouth and lips, made me believe that I was frightened. The men felt the same, and all the way the flask went from hand to hand. Once I felt my pulse to see if I was frightened, but to my surprise I found it normal. Later we forgot all about it; and when we got into the water there was no need for the flask.”

Not
Fright-
ened

Admiral Cervera was stirred to admiration by the daring of Hobson and his companions, and lost no time in sending a flag of truce

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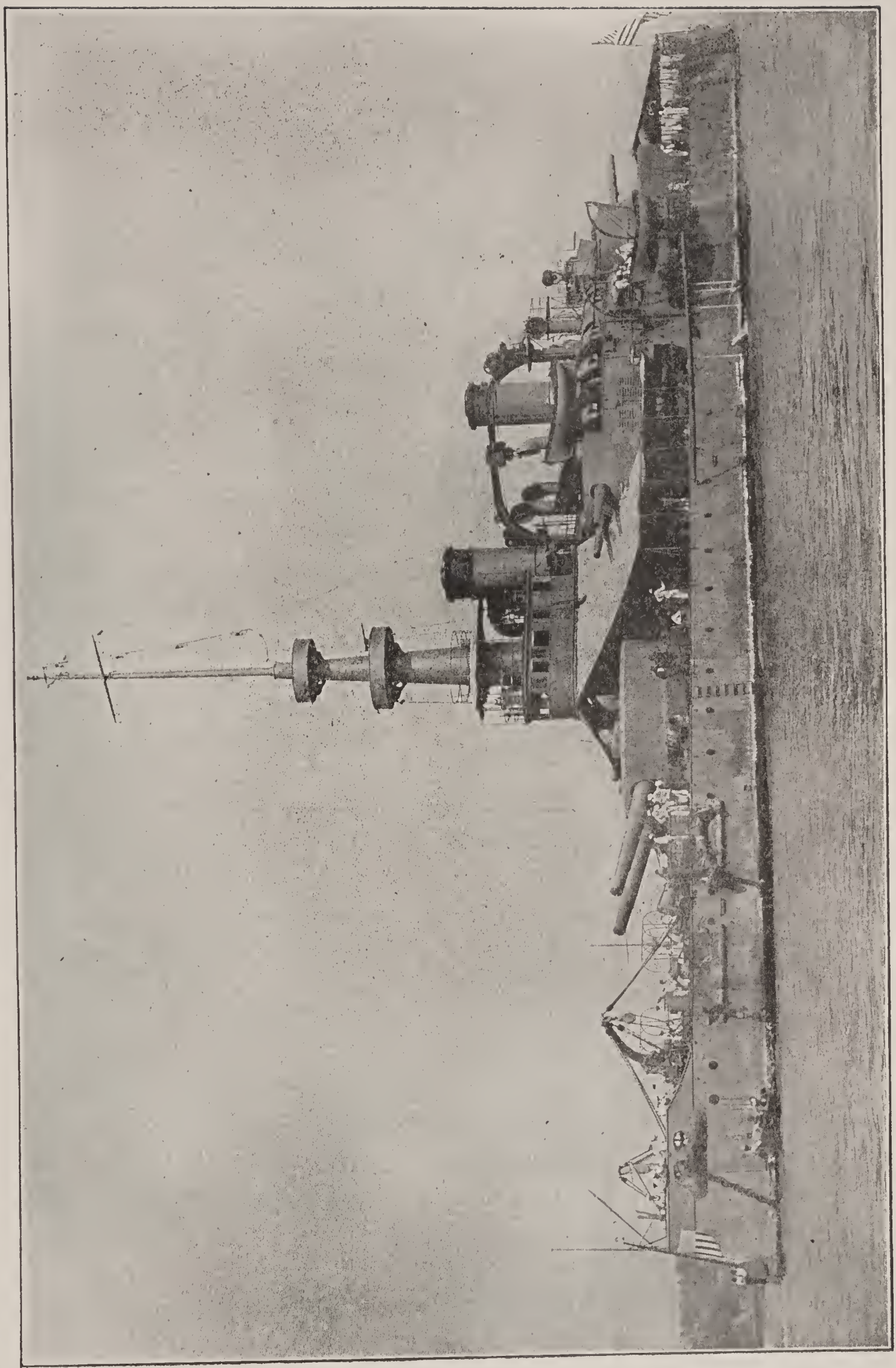
The Ex-
change

to Admiral Sampson with the news that the men were safe in his custody, and that he would be pleased to exchange them for an equivalent number of Spanish prisoners. Certain technicalities, however, intervened—apparently due to the Spaniards' inveterate love of red tape—and more than a month elapsed before the exchange was effected.

The exploit of Lieutenant Hobson and his comrades thrilled the country. President McKinley would have nominated them all at once for promotion, but decided to wait until he could learn the wishes of the young officer, who, it was suggested, might prefer the line to the engineer service. On June 27 he sent messages asking the thanks of Congress for Lieutenant Hobson, and that he be transferred to the line; recommending thanks for Lieutenant F. H. Newcomb and the men of the revenue-cutter *Hudson*, and nominating Cadet Joseph W. Powell for advancement two numbers. The recommendations were immediately adopted, and on the 29th the Senate thanked Hobson and his crew, naming every man, an unprecedented honor.

A
Remark-
able
Run

One of the most remarkable feats of the war was the run of the battleship *Oregon* from San Francisco on its way to join Admiral Sampson in the West Indies. It was felt that the services of this magnificent vessel were needed in the Atlantic, and that she should reach our Eastern coast at the earliest possible hour. She left San Francisco, March 19, under the command of Captain Charles E. Clark, and made her first stop at Callao, Peru, where she was joined by the gunboat *Marietta*, and then coaled, and steamed to Punta Arenas, at the eastern entrance to the Straits of Magellan. The two passed through the Straits, and northward along the eastern coast to Rio Janeiro, which was reached on April 30. At this port Captain Clark learned that war had begun between the United States and Spain. Here the two vessels were joined by the cruiser *Buffalo*, formerly the Brazilian *Nictheroy*. Then came a situation which deeply stirred the country. The nearer the *Oregon* drew to the West Indies, the nearer she approached the Spanish Cape Verde fleet, which many believed was lying in wait for her. Compelled to depend upon herself alone, it seemed hardly possible that, with all the courage and skill of her officers and crew, she could withstand the attack of the enemy, whose real power had been magnified by rumor. It would be a severe blow if the enemy could sink or capture her, and



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"OREGON," U. S. N.

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many were convinced that such was to be the end of the daring venture.

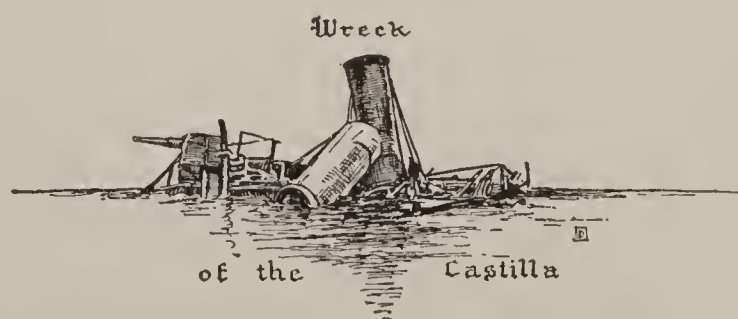
The Navy Department thought that if the Spanish squadron was after the *Oregon* and the *Marietta* it would attack them between Para and Cape St. Roque, Brazil, the nearest point from the Cape Verde Islands, from which the fleet sailed on April 29. The last stopping-place of the *Oregon* was Bahia, Brazil, whence she was to make no halt until she had crossed the zone of danger.

The observer at Jupiter Inlet, on the Florida coast, opposite the Bahamas, sighted the *Oregon* on the morning of May 24, and that evening she came to anchor off the inlet, and lost no time in joining Admiral Sampson's fleet.

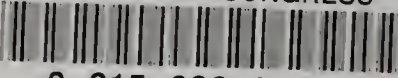
End of
the
Run

The journey of the *Oregon* was 14,133 nautical miles, and was made in sixty-eight days. Her run from San Francisco to Callao has never been equalled; and two records that surpass those made by any other battleship are her run of 2,484 knots at an average speed of 13 knots an hour, and one of 155 knots in ten hours. At the end of this wonderful voyage her engines were in perfect order. Captain Clark declared that he would have been glad to meet Admiral Cervera; and in the light of subsequent events the failure of such a meeting was a piece of providential good fortune wholly on the side of the Spanish commander.*

* The following record of this unprecedented run is taken from the log of the *Oregon*: she left San Francisco, March 19; arrived at Callao, April 4; left Callao, April 8; arrived at Sandy Point, April 17; left Sandy Point, April 21; reached Rio Janeiro, April 30; left Rio Janeiro, May 4; arrived at Bahia, May 8; left Bahia, May 9; arrived at Barbadoes, May 18; arrived at Jupiter Inlet, May 24; arrived at Key West, May 26. The actual steaming distance was 14,133 nautical miles, which was accomplished in sixty-eight days.



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